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Junior-Senior HIGH SCHOOL Clearing House



OPENING NUMBER "GETTING UNDER WAY"

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PLANS FOR VOLUME VI

With this issue, the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE begins Volume VI. The general plan for the present volume differs somewhat from that of Volumes IV and V, which were given to special numbers, each under the editorial direction of a committee.

As a result of questionnaires sent to all editors regarding the desirable policy of Volume VI, the Editorial Board has laid out a somewhat involved organization which, it is hoped, will, while permitting much greater editorial flexibility, assure to the magazine much of the concentration value of the special numbers. The volume will have both horizontal and vertical organization. Timeliness will be the keynote of the horizontal plan; permanence and sustained attention will be the basis for the vertical elements. Horizontally, each issue will deal with topics

of immediate interest to all progressive secondary-school people, each issue according to its season. Vertically, seven editorial committees or editors will each accept responsibility for not less than three nor more than four contributions dealing with larger problems. Without regard to either plan, outstanding articles will be included each month. In addition, editorial comment, book reviews, "Others Say," "Library Notes," and announcements will be continued as before.

Now is the time, therefore, for principals and teachers to take thought for tomorrow. If new teachers can be installed and homeroom activities and clubs and intramural games and new curriculum opportunities can be launched simultaneously and coöperatively and with a minimum of confusion, then we are off to a flying start. Let's go!

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EDITORIAL

GETTING UNDER WAY

Meticulous ones used to tell us that the third word in this title should be spelled "weigh" on the ground that the weighing of the anchor was tantamount to the progress of the ship. The dictionary tells us, however, that "way" is right. It should be! For weighing the anchor unfortunately results in drift quite as often as it does in headway. And we need a line of motion, a course, to pursue; else our ship will get nowhere.

When this first number of Volume VI of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE reaches its readers, teacher assignments and class schedules will have been completed, sections equalized, books issued, supplies arranged, lunch hours planned, school regimen explained, and enrollment lists and class lists filed. Breathing space seems possible to achieve.

When the immediacies of the first days

slacken, we can direct more assiduous attention to those problems and opportunities which will emerge as the school life organizes itself. We can now send out mental scouts to explore conditions just ahead of us so that we may know where our energies may best be exerted. It is important that we do this, for we know that the momentum of school life for the year is largely dependent on the readinesses, practices, and successes of the next few weeks.

Just now pupils and teachers and principal and parents are rested and ready to go. If we can seize upon the present moment to exploit this readiness, the programs for homeroom activities and classroom procedures, for club projects and playground games, and for assemblies and social-civic problems will be probable of success. On the other hand, if we so involve ourselves in the mechanisms of mere administrative minutiae

In the October Issue of the 'Clearing House' . . .

By THOMAS H. BRIGGS

*Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College,
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"Caviling at Complacency"

Dr. Briggs maintains that we, as a nation, are most complacent concerning education. The editors of the CLEARING HOUSE believe that this article by Dr. Briggs is one of the most searching appraisals of modern education that has appeared in print.

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for the next two or three weeks that the patterns of school life take shape without purposeful planning and wise control, later success can be achieved only through very great and sustained efforts.

Let us remember as we plan that the major relationships and group procedures of the school during the year to come will be derived from the spirit and practices of primary face-to-face groups in which teachers and pupils engage as partners in dealing with matters of immediate concern to them. If, therefore, homeroom groups can be motivated to police their lockers, to decorate their rooms, to plan an assembly, or to challenge each other in some contest, a continuing room spirit may be assured. Similarly, if pupil clubs result from the new found enthusiasms which pupils and teachers share in poetry or stars or games or civics or science, the school is saved the tragic temptation or necessity of coercing teachers to sponsor clubs and of drumming up members

for clubs, thus making clubs a farce. And if all or most of the pupils of the school can engage in intraschool athletics of some form *very soon*, there will be less vicarious experiencing of games from the bleachers two months hence.

In the promotion of such early fall activities those experienced teachers who are enthusiastic and competent hold the key position. If their help is tactfully enlisted, they can and will exude a benevolent spirit and beneficent leadership. The initiation of the new teacher, whether experienced or not, into the emerging propulsive life of the school is difficult to achieve satisfactorily unless teachers who have been in the school for one or more years identify themselves with the liberal and progressive program of active participation on the part of pupils and faculty.

How important this initiation is in a static school is obvious. In a progressive school, however, the new teachers may assure to the spirit and progress of the school gains out of all proportion to their own efforts and abilities. For their newness means that they are for the moment unique; they are sought as recruits by enthusiasts and by nonenthusiasts; they are the audience before whom principal and teachers play their parts during these opening days. Only let their generous enthusiasm and partnership be given to those forces which seek only to benefit girls and boys, and the school year is almost bound to succeed. Let them, on the other hand, give countenance to the "wage-slave" teachers and to those who would "hold pupils to strict accountability," and the year will soon be marred by such criticisms and hostilities as will irreparably undermine morale.

P.W.L.C.

THE JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL HOMEROOM ORGANIZATION

EVAN E. EVANS

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Evans is principal of the high school at Winfield, Kansas. In this article he discusses some of the possibilities of the homeroom in establishing a wholesome and effective pupil-teacher relationship.

L. B.

Only recently it was necessary to precede any discussion of the homeroom with a lengthy definition of it and then follow with the recent history of secondary education bringing out the situations arising which had demanded some organization to meet these needs. These matters will be disposed of in this paper by listing the objectives of the homeroom system.¹

- I. The major objective is to establish a pupil-teacher relationship and subsequent understanding which will enable the teacher to become the personal adviser to a pupil along those lines which come under the educational responsibility.
- II. The secondary objectives are:
 - A. Administrative efficiency: This organization gives small administrative units which are of inestimable value in setting up ticket sales, conducting school activities, etc.
 - B. Curricular enrichment: The outlines for study in the homeroom period may and do include materials which are of value and yet those which do not seem logically to fall in any of the particular fields.
 - C. Pupil participation: In a large school it is possible by using this rather complicated mechanism to afford many opportunities to each pupil to participate in the varied activities of the school. Naturally, in creating more organizations, more opportunities are created for citizenship participation.

The need for homerooms was earlier recognized in the junior high school and practices there are further developed and more effective in general than those in the senior high school. Our development of secondary education, however, is more and more demanding "more and better guidance" in the

secondary school, and the homeroom is rapidly assuming a place of unlimited importance in most guidance programs. In Winfield High School, where a fourfold guidance program² is coordinated through the six-year high school, the homeroom organization is probably the most effective and far-reaching of the four.

An analysis of current practices would involve study and compilations which have not yet been made. Dr. E. K. Fretwell in *Extra Curricular Activities in the Secondary School* sets up eight general schemes by which the membership of the homeroom may be determined. A recent report³ recommends these as the first two provisions in setting up the homeroom system in Jefferson Junior High School, Meriden, Connecticut: (1) Arrange groups by grades; (2) Avoid homogeneous grouping in the homeroom and provide a cross section of the entire grade in each class.

On the other hand, the Winfield Junior High School is organized on the theory that with the homeroom groups set up by grades but homogeneously grouped certain advantages have been gained which otherwise would have been lost. These paragraphs have been written in the hope that this point may be made: the success of a homeroom program will depend not upon the form of organization, but upon the enthusi-

¹ The four guidance services are: (1) Those rendered by the classroom teacher in the course of regular classroom teaching; (2) Those rendered by special officers and teachers whose positions are those which offer opportunities for guidance—principal, dean, director of tests and measurements, etc.; (3) Those services rendered in specific guidance courses; (4) The homeroom.

² "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *The School Review*, June 1931, p. 411.

³ Evan E. Evans and M. S. Hallman, *Home Rooms* (New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1930).

JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

asm and intelligence of the directing officer and upon the ability, enthusiasm, and ingenuity of the homeroom teacher.

Until a scientific study is made it would be unwise for any one to set up the best way in which to organize the homerooms. We may say "In our opinion . . ." or, as we say in Winfield, "We have tried this plan. . . ." It is unlikely that there will be an accurate study made soon in which the various forms are contrasted and weighed, because so many human factors enter into this program which are not at present weighed by "quotients."

Our faculty members who have had work recently in teachers colleges are better equipped to act as homeroom teachers since courses in extracurricular activities are included in the curricula of most teachers colleges and almost all these courses include a few lectures on homeroom organization. More literature is available in the field and more reports of practices are available. Frequent visits are made to the schools which were pioneers in the field and their systems studied, homerooms visited, and the work analyzed.

Each fall, before the opening of school in Winfield and following a general teachers meeting of all the teachers of the system, a series of three high-school faculty meetings are held. The first meeting is given to a discussion of the general routine of the school and the instructions for opening school. At this meeting a copy of *The Answer Book* is given each teacher and items of major importance stressed.⁴ At the second meeting an analysis is made of the general organization of the school with charts showing the extracurricular and guidance organization. The third meeting is given entirely to a discussion of the homeroom plans. At this meeting each faculty member

is given a copy of the Winfield manual⁵ and a copy of a *Manual for Home Room Teachers*.⁶ The first of these is the manual which contains detailed regulations for the general management of the school, extracurricular organizations, and outlines for homeroom work, a copy of which is in the hands of every pupil. The second book is primarily for teachers and contains suggestions to homeroom teachers of things to do. Possibly the first instruction should be one thing not to do—*Do not make the homeroom another class*. The finesse and ingenuity of the homeroom teacher will be tested to see if the second secondary objective, "curricular enrichment," may be reached without permitting the homeroom to be an additional period of instruction with the homeroom teacher teaching rather than permitting the homeroom pupils to work on the problem.

The Skinner Junior-High-School faculty in Denver for several weeks worked out interesting homeroom discussions on habits and attitudes desirable for good citizenship. Some difficulty is encountered with teachers new to the homeroom because they feel that unless a special study is under way homeroom work is at a standstill. Definite progress may be made towards attaining the major objective while the entire group is engaged in a study period if the homeroom teacher is using that time to make an "attention chart" for one of the group, or if the entries are being made on the individual record of citizenship participation, or if one of the group is engaged in a conference relating to any of the items of importance about which the homeroom teacher should inform himself, or even if the conference is merely for the purpose of establishing pupil-teacher confidence or interest.

⁴ *The Manual of Activities and Administration and the Outline of Home-Room Study and Activity*, Winfield, Kansas: Winfield High School.

⁵ *Manual for Home-Room Teachers*, Winfield, Kansas: Winfield High School.

⁶ *The Answer Book*, Winfield, Kansas: Winfield High School.

JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL HOMEROOM ORGANIZATION

We must keep in mind that the major purpose is to establish a confidence between pupil and teacher which will bring to the homeroom teacher information and subsequent insight and judgment which will enable her to function as a guide.

Superintendent Merle Prunty of Tulsa, Oklahoma, while principal of Central High School of that city, developed a homeroom organization which was briefly described in the Twenty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.¹ This organization has been perfected until it is one of the outstanding organizations in the middle west. While this is a senior high school, the manuals they have printed (they have printed one for each of the three senior-high-school classes) are used as the bases for homeroom organizations in many junior high schools.

The interesting development of homeroom responsibility in student-government organizations, assembly programs, and the multitude of student activities, has been a natural sequence. Whereas the original student-government-body members were selected in different ways from large groups or from the school at large and, being selected that way, felt little or no direct responsibility to a small unitary constituency, we now find the trend is towards student-government organizations which are made up of homeroom representatives. In this way, each member is the direct representative of his small constituency and as such is directly responsible to them. This responsibility works both ways. In the first place, students who see or feel the need for all-school legislation or activity to correct, institute, or improve certain practices or conditions and who are not members of the student-government organization have a natural sequence

for the presentation of such materials. They are presented in the homeroom and if the homeroom has sufficient interest or belief in the proposal the homeroom representative may be instructed to present to the council such and such a proposition with the following recommendation by homeroom No. — or by Miss Jones' homeroom. On the other hand, the council may have certain matters up for consideration on which it wishes to secure the reaction of the student body. It is a natural procedure for the representatives to present these matters to the members of the constituencies they represent and bring back the reactions of the smaller groups. The changes in student-council constitutions have been many where the organization has been changed from one that is complicated to one where the membership is made up of representatives chosen from the homerooms.

Before the homeroom organization was brought to its present state the assemblies were partitioned out to departments or perhaps in most cases were assemblies where the programs were made up of outside speakers secured by the principal. Now the homerooms vie with each other for the privilege of presenting assembly programs. In Winfield, in order to permit more homerooms to present assembly programs, class assemblies are held regularly in addition to the junior-high-school assemblies, the senior-high-school assemblies, and the all-school assemblies, and in these class assemblies the homerooms alternate in presenting programs. The seventh grade, or first-year junior-high-school class, expects every pupil in the class to participate during the year in at least one assembly program. This participation may be as an actor, a stage manager, publicity director, or any of the multitude of duties a homeroom teacher finds may be performed by homeroom people anxious to serve the political unit of which they feel themselves to be active members. A great number of these programs are short

¹ Merle Prunty, "Local Practices; Tulsa High School," The Twenty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, "Extra-Curricular Activities." Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1926.

plays which are presented in about twenty- or thirty-minutes time. The play is written, cast, and coached by some member or group of members of the homeroom with the members of the cast, managers, director, etc., all members of the homeroom. The plays run from some written to picture each of the eight objectives of secondary education, through those dramatizing current, historical, or literary events, to some that are purely fictional, modern, fantastic, and entertaining.

Careful records are kept of all pupil participation in school or out-of-school activities. When a recital is given, a party, or dance, and the program or society item appears in the paper, the homeroom teacher either files the item or makes a note of it on the homeroom card with the other information filed. As a natural outcome the school file contains a complete school history for the years of attendance at Winfield High School and, since a rather complete health and test record comes with the pupil from the elementary school, the homeroom teacher finds at all times a folder of material and information relative to the pupil for whom she is the guide.

The most valuable material on homeroom

development which has recently come to my attention is that included by Dr. E. K. Fretwell in chapter II of *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Education*⁸ which was published this summer. While Dr. Fretwell does not make the statement, one might conclude from the prominent place he gives the homeroom in this text that he considers this organization at least as important as any other form of extracurricular activity. This organization is one of the most recent in secondary education and it seems safe to predict that it will continue or that in case it is replaced by an organization of a different form and name that this new organization will assume the duties implied by the objectives which we have set up. With our increasing complexity of civilization, the functions of the school will more and more necessitate guidance for each individual and since guidance cannot be satisfactorily performed without personnel information these pupil-teacher friendships and relationships must be established and maintained. Therefore, our homeroom organization or one performing similar functions must be maintained.

⁸ Elbert K. Fretwell, *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Education* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931).

GETTING THE CLUB PROGRAM UNDER WAY

HARRY C. MCKOWN

EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. McKown, of the University of Pittsburgh, is widely known for his contributions to the development of a wholesome attitude towards pupil activities. We asked him to tell us how he would organize a club program so that pupils' time would be used to best advantage.

F. E. L.

In many schools now the usual annual demonstration of "club politics" will soon be under way. It will be evidenced by the rush of students to join particular clubs because of the teacher who sponsors them—joining either because they know it is "good politics" to do so, or because they personally

like the sponsor; by the rush of teachers to get appointments to the clubs they wish to sponsor, or to avoid sponsorship, on one pretext or another; and by the rush of the principal, activity director, or other administrative officers to get the program "going," or to fill up first and keep alive old tradi-

GETTING THE CLUB PROGRAM UNDER WAY

tional clubs. And in few of these "rushes" will there be used a semblance of educational sagacity.

Not all schools have all of these influences at work, but most schools have some of them, to greater or less extent. Perpetuation of tradition is becoming not less strong in extracurricular activities than it is in the so-called curricular field. A most logical question arises out of a recognition and consideration of these influences: "Well, what should be done?" "How shall we go about starting our year's program of clubs?" Perhaps a few brief, dogmatically stated suggestions will help.

I. *Evaluate And Capitalize Last Year's Failures and Successes.* It is reasonable to state that a continuously developing program of any kind must take into consideration previous experience, and in club affairs this means that both the high and the low spots of last year's schedule should be located, studied, and capitalized. Maintaining last year's strengths and strengthening last year's weaknesses are logical goals for any activity.

This evaluation and capitalization will be made by the faculty as a whole in open discussion and probably centered in a specialized, authorized, and respected faculty committee. Recognition of this problem in general faculty meetings early in the year will help to give the club program dignity and importance.

If general summaries by club officers and sponsors have been filed away, as they should have been, a study of these will assist in determining emphases for the present year. If such reports are not available, a general estimate must be utilized. These summaries will take into consideration all of the many details of the program, size, membership, time, place, officers, coordination, evaluation, activities, etc.

II. *Study This Year's Possibilities.* New teachers, new students, new interests, new

"It requires almost more than human courage to endanger one's comfort and even one's job by disturbing complacency and by persisting in efforts to make the public aware that a large part of their investment in high schools, of which they are proud, is wasted. . . . It is intelligence, broad knowledge, vision, convictions, and courage, however, that make for leadership."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

Read this article in the October issue of
the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEAR-
ING HOUSE.

arrangements of details, and other important factors will have to be considered at the beginning of each and every school year. These cannot be considered finally and fairly at the close of the school term the preceding spring, nor can the solutions of the related problems be handed out readymade, beforehand, by the principal, activity director, or sponsors. Three very important elements to be considered are student interests, teacher interests, and the details of the program.

a) *Student interests.* Club membership is elective and it is reasonable that the students should be assisted in electing as wisely as possible. From a long list or a varied schedule he will be allowed to make two or three choices, in the order of his preference, and wherever at all possible his first choice will be allowed. Two important aims of the club program are deepening the interests the pupil already has and widening his range of interests. Both should be reflected in the final membership rolls of the organizations.

This list of possible clubs may come from a number of sources; some clubs are more or less permanent year after year; others may be added after a canvass of student and teacher interests; still others from a study of the available literature and the publica-

tions of other schools. Needless to state such a list should never be closed or completed.

A club-membership campaign should be conducted in the interest of explaining the various clubs, their objectives, fields, and work. This may be done through the assembly and homeroom programs, the newspaper, handbook, or other publication, by means of the bulletin board, posters, signs, printed or mimeographed lists, and descriptions of aims and activities, and in other ways. This campaign should be a dignified educational event and not a member-getting drive or a competitive campaign of propaganda.

Students should be required, to as great an extent as possible, to enter clubs because of activities and not because of student friendships, attitude towards sponsor, convenience of the place and hour, or for other minor considerations. No teacher should be allowed, normally, to ask or to influence a student to join her club, or be allowed to exclude one from it.

b) *Teacher interests.* Probably nothing will wreck a club more quickly than an uninterested, unsympathetic, or unprepared sponsor. Frequently sponsors are appointed because of vacancy of period, seniority, or for other inconsequential reasons. A careful consideration of interests, preparation, capabilities, personal qualifications, and student likes and dislikes will be necessary in fitting the sponsor happily into the club program.

c) *Details of the program.* The many details of the club schedule: time, place, membership, insignia, frequency of meeting, range of membership, activities, financing, credit, competition, evaluation, etc., will have to be worked out and readapted and readjusted many times and probably even then these details will vary for different types of clubs.

III. *General Suggestions.* a) *Avoid stampeding students into clubs.* There is probably no real, valid reason why clubs should be

started during the first week of school. Many of the student's activities will be prescribed for him and these will require no thought and allow of no election on his part. If membership in clubs is voluntary, then time enough for making a wise election should be allowed. The activity period, or the club period, may be intelligently used for two or three weeks in helping to decide club affiliations. Hasty decisions will be, usually, unwise ones.

b) *Provide for brand new club elections.* The usual method of starting clubs is for the administrator, after posting a list of last year's clubs, to say, "Now go ahead and join these and if there is sufficient interest in other clubs we will see about starting them later." Why should not the student be allowed to start from "zero" each year and be uninfluenced by "What we had last year?" There are far too many traditional clubs in any school. Tradition should have little or no recognition in the club program. The club exists only that it may benefit the student. The perpetuation of traditional organizations because they are traditional is a stupid failure to appreciate the logical place and purpose of these organizations in the school. This does not mean that the school should not have traditional clubs; it will probably have several of them, but it does mean that the school shall not be more interested in perpetuating these than it is in educating its students.

c) *Make provision for a continuous careful study of the club program.* It seems artless to suggest that the problems of the club program should not be considered once and for all when the schedule is made up, the students grouped, and the sponsors assigned. But many school people appear to believe that once the program is got under way it will run of its own accord. An intelligent study of these problems implies definitely organized committees continuously at work; recognition of these problems in regular

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and special faculty meetings; and as frequent changes and adjustments as may be necessary.

d) *Experiment and go slowly.* The serious study of the whole extracurricular program is in its infancy and we know little about it. Consequently we have little in the way of definite solutions for its many and varied problems. And if we had these solutions for now, they would probably not be adequate for next month or next year. It is evident, then, that continuous experimentation in the interest of discovering the best ways and means of solving these problems under varying conditions and circumstances is absolutely essential and also that this experimentation involves evaluation and measurement of club outcomes. The sooner we begin to think in quantitative and qualitative terms, the more intelligently directed will be our efforts at improvement of this par-

ticular phase of the extracurricular program.

These brief comments indicate that there should be developed, slowly and intelligently, upon a studied and logical evaluation of their organization and activities, a policy in regard to clubs in their various phases; that no program be considered organized and planned once and for all; and that fewer club programs continue the "hand to mouth" existence that they do in far too many schools at the present time. The proper time to get to work on this phase of school life is not the first week of the second semester but some time during the first two or three weeks of the first semester. While the second semester's program will not be the same as the first semester's program, yet there will probably be few adjustments necessary in establishing and getting under way this second half of this schedule.

THE SCHOOL AND THE NEW TEACHER

ARTHUR GOULD

EDITOR'S NOTE: We believed that Mr. Gould, assistant superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, would know how new teachers could best be initiated into their complex positions. We were not disappointed when we received this article.

F. E. L.

For years industry has been concerned with the problem of labor turnover. Frequent shifting of help, particularly in positions calling for a high degree of training and skill, has been found to be not only annoying but expensive—expensive because of diminished quantity and lowered quality of output. In educational work we have come to accept frequent moving of teachers into and out of positions as a necessary concomitant of the work of our profession. Teachers, supervisors, and administrators come and go in a rather amazing procession. Under such conditions, can the public or the profession reasonably expect even a fairly high quality of educational output?

Industry has moved in two directions to offset its handicaps due to labor turnover. It has attempted to stabilize conditions of employment to the end that employees of value to the concerns may find it worth while to stay on the job. It has also set up training programs so that newcomers may become productive members of the group as soon as possible. It seems almost impossible to accomplish anything in the way of stabilizing conditions of employment in the teaching world. The peripatetic nature of the teaching job seems to be accepted as a necessary evil. But it is possible to set up some type of adjustment program in each school or system of any size so that the

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new teacher coming into this situation may become adjusted to her new work quickly and easily to the end that she may be able, at as early a date as possible, to deliver satisfactory service to the school community.

The importance and seriousness of this problem of inducting new teachers into their work is shown by a study made in the secondary schools of Los Angeles during the year 1929-1930. This study was undertaken by a committee of secondary principals, an assistant director of the research department, and two assistant superintendents in coöperation with the Committee on Organization of Investigations in Secondary Education of the Department of Secondary Principals. The work of this committee dealt with the thirty high schools and twenty-three junior high schools of Los Angeles during the period of nine semesters beginning in September, 1925, a period of rapid expansion in these schools. During this time 2,466 teachers were assigned to the fifty-three schools concerned, coming new into the system or transferring from one school to another. This is an average of 548 per year. Of this total number, 587, or 24 per cent, had had no teaching experience before entering the system. This happened as the result of a definite policy of seeking the best graduates of the teacher-training institutions of the State to take positions immediately after graduation. Seven hundred fifty, or 30 per cent, had had experience in other school systems. The rest of the changes found resulted from transfers between schools of various types within the system.

As the report of the committee states, "The problems involved in the induction of such a large number of teachers into effective service are many and varied. If rapid adjustment to life in the new school situation is to be achieved by the new teachers, the principal and his staff must have a defi-

nite program worked out which is capable of prompt execution."

Recognition of this problem has produced, among other things, the teacher's handbook which is developed sometimes by the principal of a large school for his own school and sometimes by the superintendent for use in the system. Since the local conditions that prevail in each individual school are often unique, the handbook for use within the school is probably the more effective. Such a handbook must seek to adjust the teacher easily to the material resources of the school, to the personnel of the school, and to the curricular, extracurricular, and routine business life of the new school environment in which she is placed. While such a guide for the new teacher cannot displace the personal interviews with the principal and others in the school who are responsible for its organization and progress, yet it has certain advantages which can be secured by no other means. Printed material can be taken home by the teacher and studied at leisure. Directions and suggestions made in an oral interview or two at the beginning of work in a new school, when many new adjustments have to be made, are easily forgotten or misunderstood, resulting in embarrassment and serious loss of efficiency. The teacher's guide serves as a ready reference manual, easily available when needed.

Guides or manuals of the sort just suggested as developed in various schools deal with an important range of subjects: the duties of the various officers of the school including such specialized officers as the registrar and counselor; departmental organization; administrative participation by students and teachers through committees; use of printed forms; necessary reports; administrative details such as bell schedules, bulletins, handling of supplies, keys, study halls and library, accident reports, and textbooks; details that have to do with instruc-

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tion such as student programs, marking system, handling of failures, and the issuing of reports; duties of homeroom teachers and the whole guidance program; homeroom activities; responsibility of the homeroom teachers (or others) for checking pupils' programs with reference to the course of study, graduation, and college entrance; extracurricular activities and regulations governing participation in them; the social policy of the school; student organizations such as those dealing with student business affairs, scholarship society, honor society, girls' and boys' leagues, welfare work, and club program; the ideals and traditions of the school. The detailed contents of the manual will, of course, vary according to local conditions and situations. Enough has been said to indicate the type of material to be included.

Considerable experience seems to indicate the loose-leaf type of manual in a fairly permanent, dignified cover as the most satisfactory. The information should be printed on a good quality of paper. If the contents have been carefully organized it will be no

great task to reprint an occasional page as the information which it contains becomes obsolete. Space should be left on each page, either in the printed matter itself or in a wide margin, so that annotations may be made as changes of a minor sort become necessary. Pages should be numbered and, needless to say, an index is essential.

It must not be thought that the whole duty of the school towards the new teacher has been performed with the issuance of such a manual. Plans must be made to keep the contents down to date continually. The contents must be supplemented by occasional bulletins. Meetings of departmental groups or of the whole teaching group must be held. The new teacher must not be abandoned to her fate until, quickly or slowly as the case may be, she has been assimilated into the school and its spirit. Some one person, possibly a head of a department or some experienced teacher, should definitely be indicated as the sponsor of the newcomer to the end that the latter may have some one to whom she may turn at all times for friendly counsel and help.

CONCRETE EVIDENCE OF THE EFFECT OF ABILITY GROUPING UPON THE HAPPINESS OF PUPILS

PAULINE PRIEST

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Priest, of the Martin Boots Junior High School, Marion, Indiana, presents three examples to show that ability grouping "pays." We plan to publish articles advocating both sides of this controversial issue. What are your ideas on this subject?

F. E. L.

Much has been said theoretically about the advantages and disadvantages of ability grouping but little evidence has been forthcoming. I have been teaching for the past few years in a junior high school where ability grouping is in effect and have witnessed its results. Last year I taught seventh-grade pupils. They entered our school from buildings where ability grouping was not in use, and I observed them with interest

as they adjusted themselves in a happy manner and found satisfaction where they never quite found it before.

To be specific, I have three definite examples in mind which I believe show the feeling which pupils have towards ability grouping. The pupils in mind are Carl F—, Elizabeth —, and Ella D—.

In our school the various sections are known by numbers, section one being the

"The justifiable indictment that can be brought against teachers in our secondary schools, and also in our colleges, does not primarily concern the details of instruction; rather, it is that the purposes of the whole educative process are uncertain and indefinite, and consequently that a great amount of skilled effort is in a large sense meaningless and ineffectual."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

Read this article in the October issue of
the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEAR-
ING HOUSE.

highest. At the end of the first six weeks teachers are asked to send recommendations to the office for section changes where the teacher believes the pupil is poorly assigned. At this time I had three pupils who had been doing outstanding work in the sections in which they were and I felt that they would probably be able to do good work in the next higher section. I checked their work in other classes and found it consistently high, so I sent my recommendation for the changes to be made.

Carl was in section five with pupils who needed work presented in a far more detailed manner than he, and the result had been that his mind had time to wander to undesirable things. In talking to him, however, I found that he was happier than he had ever been in school; he told me that it was the first time he had ever been able to be at the head of his class and his ambition was to stay there. He said he never had "been good" in his studies, that the others in his classes seemed to grasp the work more easily than he, and the teacher did not take time to explain his difficulties. Now he was the one who understood quickly in comparison to the rest of the class and he was pleased. When it was suggested that he change to a higher section he frankly said

that he was happy at the head of his class and did not want to change to a group where he would find himself, as he had been in other years, struggling along at the foot. He said, however, that if his teachers and the principal thought he could do good work in a higher section he would "try it." Carl was changed to section four and I am pleased to say that he has put to good use the time he had been wasting and is doing excellent work in the present class. I am more than happy also to find that his moral standards have raised with increased duties. This side is so often neglected by the teacher where it really should be of paramount importance if she wishes to mold the pupils into good citizens, that I am pleased that I have been in a measure responsible for the making of a better citizen.

The other two examples were girls. Elizabeth was in the fourth section and was recommended for the third. Her first remark when told of the proposed re-sectioning was, "Do I have to change?" She said that she liked to be at the head of her class and that she felt she was working hard to remain there, she knew she would be required to do more work and more difficult work in a higher section and believed that she would not be able to hold her high position if the change was made. She stated that she would be much happier leading the fifth section than following the fourth. She was allowed to remain in the section in which she had been.

Ella was in section three and recommended for section two. She said much the same that Elizabeth said but added the statement that she had been taking two subjects home each night in order to keep her advanced place in the class. She said she was sure she could not do the added amount of work that would be demanded of her in the higher section; that she would like to continue working hard but wanted to be able to keep her place scholastically at the top

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of her class. She also was allowed to remain in the same section.

These last two cases to me are significant because they show that the pupils realize the purpose of ability grouping and that each pupil has a place where he should be able to do good work in comparison with the group in which he finds himself. They realize that those pupils who in former years were doing most of the class work and carrying off the honors because they were able to grasp facts and methods quickly, are now in a section with others of the same ability, and those pupils who had little chance before are grouped together and given opportunity to develop themselves. Before, there was little encouragement to

do their best work because the others were so far superior to them, but now they suddenly find themselves able to compete with those about them and they are happier than they have ever been in school.

Ability grouping gives each a chance to develop into an individual and a good citizen instead of merely trailing in a discouraged manner after a group having greater ability. If we as teachers are striving to help our pupils to be individuals with independent thoughts and ideals, if we want them to stand apart like so many unique patterns instead of appearing to be from one mold, we will strive to improve our system of ability grouping and thereby make better and happier pupils and citizens.

A PROGRAM OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES AND THE PSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEM OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

EFFINGHAM C. MURRAY

EDITOR'S NOTE: Effingham C. Murray has charge of the activities program in the famous DeWitt Clinton High School of New York City. He questions the validity of ability grouping. The reader may rest assured that Mr. Murray's opinions are not based upon any pet theories or hobbies but upon his actual experience.

P. S. M.

Once upon a time boys and girls went to high schools if they intended going on to college later. Then the secondary schoolman had a very simple personnel problem; all his candidates were highly motivated and they all belonged to a carefully selected group. If they did not meet a fairly high standard of intellectual ability they did not enter the schools or they very soon dropped out. But in forty years society has completely revolutionized its attitude. Now it demands that the secondary school accept every child between the ages of thirteen and eighteen and give him an education that will fit him for living, with or without the complement of college.

This new standard puts the problem squarely before the secondary educator to

provide a school that will offer to every child an opportunity for success. But in New York City alone more than 100,000 boys and girls are attending high schools—over 100,000 individuals, no two of them alike, and each one is asking hopefully that the school give him enough attention to solve his immediate personal problems.

Nature designed man as an individual; society has sought to standardize him. The week-old baby is a complete individualist; he will fight his mother for the lunch that he knows is necessary for his continued success. But before that baby reaches high school, in thirteen years, society will have taught him that he must not be a nuisance; that he must conform; that he must accept standardization. The mother-knows-best

type of parent, the do-it-because-I-say-so type of teacher, and all the autocrats of his environment will have worked on his psychology till some of his fine enthusiasm will have been lost. But he will never lose it all, not as school boy.

So the adolescent boy or girl enters high school a little bewildered. He is still hopeful of the individual attention he knows he needs, but no longer confident as he was thirteen years earlier. Disillusionment has begun. And the schools offer him (1) a standardized curriculum; (2) a program of formal discipline; (3) the didactic admonition "This is what you need. Be a good child and get it over with"; and (4) standard examinations, success in which alone marks achievement.

The child's bewilderment increases; but with touching confidence in that superior being, the teacher, he attacks the work. He tries hard, but he can not make the grade; and two out of three fail to complete the four-year course. They drop out of school as soon as the law will let them; and they tell the teacher who is interested to ask why they leave, that it is because they have to go to work; that their fathers cannot afford to keep them in school. They try to believe that themselves, but they are well aware of the real reason—they have failed; fathers make any sacrifice to keep children in school when they are succeeding. So they enter the world, not prepared for living, but conscious of failure, beaten before they start. This is not true of all; some rise superior to the discouragement and become prominent bootleggers. But the question suggests itself: Which failed, the child or the school?

This last paragraph is, of course, viciously unfair to an increasing number of teachers who do not do anything of the kind. But the most enthusiastic leader of a child, the best encourager of learning is handicapped by a formal system and a standard-

ized public opinion. Few break through at all, and justice to them would mean overlooking the shortcomings of the many.

Children are not standardized; no two of them are alike in every detail; and no school that fails to recognize this fact is meeting its problem squarely. Leonard V. Koos, discussing the problems of the modern high school in his book, *The American Secondary School*, says: "Almost all writers urge recognition of individual differences in ability, interests, and needs." It is true; they do. And progressive schoolmen throughout the world are working on the problem of how the curriculum can be made to meet these differences. The work is in its infancy as yet, however, as may be seen from the following illustration. In 1903 Dr. E. L. Thorndike published a book, *Educational Psychology*, in which he devoted two thirds of a page to the problem of individual differences. In 1914 he published a new edition in three volumes in which he devoted 246 pages to the same problem. And in 1929, Robert Sidney Ellis published a volume of 522 pages which he called *The Psychology of Individual Differences*.

From the point of view of the educator, children differ in sex, physical development, chronological age, mental age, social and economic backgrounds, inheritance, and mental traits. Exigencies of administration and economy and the fact that most of these differences are only now coming to be recognized have placed children who differ in all these particulars in the same schools and classes. Of late a good deal of interest has been shown in various plans of separating children into groups of like individuals. None of these has been conspicuously successful, probably for want of adequate data on which to base the separation, and because, in the absence of this data, no complete homogeneity can be attained in the groups.

Possibly it is wiser, certainly it is neces-

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sary, in the present financial state of the schools, that the principle of segregation on any basis be not carried very far. Authorities differ even on the simple question of sex segregation, though the consensus seems to favor the coeducational school. And beyond that the only plans that have won any support are the very obvious ones based on such differences as physical handicaps and economic backgrounds. Educational systems that have the money to spend are providing separate schools today for the deaf and dumb, for cardiac cases, and for the crippled. Society segregates its own children to some extent on the basis of social and economic backgrounds; parents of culture and means send their children to special "modern" schools in some cases. And many of our larger schools, those with adequate staffs and facilities for the experiment, are grouping children according to some mental age or intelligence standard. But the great majority still follow the old plan of grouping in accordance with age and achievement, and quite possibly they should continue to do so until individual psychology has learned enough about the problem to provide some satisfactory basis for segregation. So far individual differences have continued to exist within any group that has been set up. And the problem of individual differences in mental traits is still so little understood that no scientific attempt at producing a standard for segregation has been made.

The principle of separation into groups has been widely condemned on the ground that it tends to discourage the children placed in any lower group, and so to work more harm than good. This is shown in an experiment conducted during some years at James Madison High School, New York. The school was divided into three schools in one building, classified on a basis of ability and accomplishment. The highest group was proceeding through high school

successfully; the second and third groups were failing less and more, respectively. The two lower groups were encouraged to try to achieve success and win a transfer to the higher group. But it was found that the poorest pupils settled down in their discouragement, accepted their fate, and made little or no effort to improve. The segregation plan was defeating its own purpose.

Another attempt at a solution of the problem has been the institution of trade and commercial high schools. This has been defeated through its own faults of administration, for school administrators hailed the new schools as the solution of all their problems and sent all their misfits, the failing pupils, to the trade or commercial school, whether the pupil wanted to go or not. And they entirely neglected the fact that nature's law is one of correlation, not compensation; that the child who is failing in Latin or mathematics will not necessarily, or even probably, succeed in the shop or typewriting courses; that, in short, it takes brains to be a good carpenter, and the school has a deeper problem with the child of the 70 I.Q. than can be met with a casual segregation on any basis.

Probably the ultimate solution lies in some elasticity of program and standard of achievement. And the schools will be able to care for their misfits when they can delete the mis- and fit a plan of work to their children that they can accomplish and for which the school can give credits short of the diploma.

In the last analysis the school concerns itself chiefly with the child's mental development. The individual differences due to physical, social, economic, or inherited characteristics become significant as they affect the mental traits of the child. And the problem derives its greatest difficulty from the fact that we know so little about how these forces interact.

The worker in the exact sciences may

reach absolute conclusions. He has a set of conditions that are fixed, and he may proceed in perfect confidence that if he does his work accurately his results will prove reliable. In psychology this is not true. Nothing so highly subjective as the mental reactions to stimulus, the stimulus-response bonds, affected by all the influences of heredity and environment, can be readily examined by any objective test. It is so nearly impossible to control all conditions that the psychological experimenter is faced with the necessity of making allowances for one or more variables that tend to invalidate his conclusions. This may be shown in any example of testing, but a good instance is the recent experiment in objective psychology conducted in New York by Dr. G. V. Hamilton on the question of successful marriage. This was essentially an experiment dealing with individual differences. Dr. Hamilton examined one hundred men and as many women, all married, a few of them to each other. Each person replied to a series of questions on the general subject of marriage and sex relations and the data collected was collated, arranged, and discussed. But Dr. Hamilton himself disclaimed any finality, or even complete validity for his conclusions; he rather avoided expressing any conclusions. Thousands of people would have to be examined to give real validity to such an experiment; the mere fact that those who did answer were volunteers, and so, presumably, interested and already thinking on the line of the experiment, would make them a selected group and not truly representative of society.

Partly because of these difficulties, the science of psychology has begun with the general and is slowly proceeding to the particular. Psychologists have, to date, concerned themselves chiefly with the general laws of their science and have dealt with averages, means, and central tendencies, leaving the individual to shift for himself.

Ellis in *The Psychology of Individual Differences*, states his immediate problem, basing it on all the generalizations of his predecessors in the wider field. He says in part: "Heredity and environment are the two factors that make us what we are. Age, sex, and race produce minor deviations in us. And genius, feeble-mindedness, insanity, and delinquency make up the major deviations. All the possible permutations and combinations of these lead to the individual differences due to the relations between the different amounts of mental traits in the same individual." And this number is incalculable.

Starting from that statement, Ellis discusses heredity to show that there is an infinite number of possible variations due to partial inheritances through the chromosomes from any number of ancestors, and to the various combinations of the ninety-six chromosomes of the immediate parents. He concludes that intellectual capacities, in varying amounts, seem to be determined by heredity; that environment may produce wide variations in individuals through imparting specific skills, knowledge, etc.; but it, environment, including the schools, cannot increase the intelligence or reasoning power of children; and that, given all these possible variations in native endowment, affected by all the possible differences in environment and measured by our best tests, which are still inadequate as our knowledge of the subject is so limited, two individuals of identical mental ages and I.Q.'s may differ widely in respect of mental traits.

The older psychologists divided man into three categories: visual, auditory, and motor minded. Ellis makes the point that experimentation has shown that all the senses may exist in any degree or quality; that individual differences may be either or both qualitative or quantitative. The visual-minded subject has an advantage in any system of tests devised to date, and this is

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one of the variables that must be recognized and allowed for in testing. But even disregarding that variable the resultant records established measure native intelligence, the subject's ability to respond to stimulus, to meet a new situation and come out of it with satisfaction. And there is nothing in the established data that can show whether the subject will respond with more satisfaction to one situation or another.

At this point the problem divides itself naturally into three, or rather concerns itself with three, groups of individual differences. Any high-school class, tested for intelligence, will show a rough conformity with the normal probability curve. There will be a large majority, 80 per cent, showing a distinct central tendency, and two groups, 10 per cent each, widely divergent above and below the normal. And within each group there will be the same individual differences due to qualitative and quantitative variations in the acquired characteristics. Each group presents its own problem to the schoolman. And a serious indictment of education is that educators have yielded to circumstances in this matter and have taken the easiest way out. Pressed for time, they have concerned themselves with the problems of the largest group and have neglected the smaller ones. To say that the lowest group suffers from this treatment is probably an exaggeration; they are not much worse off than they would be with more attention. But they could be encouraged to feel that, if they cannot accomplish on the level of the best of their classmates, the achievement that is possible to them is no less respectable, though on a lower level. That the boys and girls of the high I.Q.'s do suffer is axiomatic. Every teacher has had the experience of meeting pupils at the beginning of the term who showed great promise, and of seeing them begin to slack as they found that the course, necessarily

designed for the normal majority did not begin to tax their resources or lead them to exert themselves.

An illustration of this last point will make the problem obvious. A boy with an I.Q. of 142 was graduated from a small high school. He had been so good that his teachers had not held him to strict account; at least he had never had to make any serious efforts. In college he found the same conditions; he cut courses recklessly but took the examinations and passed them easily. He could not be flunked out, but at the end of his sophomore year he was expelled for breaking the college rule about cutting. The authorities were induced to take him back on the understanding that he would elect two majors—his classmates took only one—and accomplish the work by devoting his summer vacations to reading. He undertook the conditions with no illusions, partly to please his father, but more because his own pugnacity was aroused. Carrying the double load he was graduated *magna cum laude*, in pretty stiff competition. In this instance elasticity of program accomplished the desired result.

But these are not the only problems. Within all three groups the variations exist; no two pupils are exactly alike or will respond equally to the same treatment. And still the schools set the same tasks and demand the same achievement from the sons of our Supreme Court Justices, and hod carriers, from the daughters of college presidents and cleaning women, from the boys and girls who grew up through active, creative childhoods, in spacious, leisurely environments, and those who come from squalid slum conditions. The schools cannot help it. Society's ambition has far outstripped its performance. The equipment, financing, and staffing that was adequate for the school population of forty years ago is pitifully inadequate for the new members and the new standards set for the schools today.

Most schoolmen recognize the problem and the need; they would solve the one and meet the other if they could. But they can do so only when an enlightened public opinion shall have provided the means.

In the meantime there is, in nearly every modern school, an inner organization that is capable of alleviating the situation, perhaps of providing the ultimate solution. This is the extracurricular program, the student activities. In forty years this program of "worth-while things that the children are going to do anyway" has advanced from a scarcely tolerated group of helter-skelter after-school plays to a dignified position within the curriculum itself in many schools and systems. Once boys taught themselves to swim—girls did not learn—and a few of the boys drowned themselves each summer. Now our New York City high schools that have the facilities to teach it will not graduate their students who have not learned to swim. And again as society came to recognize that the interest in sports and athletics had a useful effect on the boys' and girls' attitude towards health and health education, the educative program was extended to include physical training. And in recent years the gymnasium departments of our high schools have undertaken to direct wider and wider sport programs, both inter- and intra-school. Once school papers and dramatic societies were laughed at as harmless play. Now English and elocution departments make both activities integral parts of their curricula and give credit for performance. Harry C. McKown, in his book, *School Clubs*, lists four hundred clubs as possibly worth-while organizations in some of the different kinds of high schools. Not all of them would be useful in any one school, of course, but the number is significant as it indicates the possibilities of the program.

A well arranged program of student activities should follow closely a few general principles: (1) It should arise from a well-

defined social need in the school; (2) It should be 100 per cent voluntary; (3) It should capitalize the imitative impulse in all children; (4) It should capitalize the gregarious instinct in children; (5) It should organize the educational forces in the lives of children outside of school; (6) It should motivate and enrich the school work-curriculum; (7) It should develop closer acquaintance between teacher and pupil, a sense of coöperation.

A social need would be evident when a group of children elect of their own initiative to produce a play. Somewhere in their consciousness would be a stimulus to act, a sense that they would get satisfaction from dramatics. And if we comply with the second principle above and merely direct the activities of those who propose to take part in the dramatics there will be satisfaction gained and education accomplished, new, vital stimulus-response bonds set up and fixed.

Left to themselves children will always base their play on imitation; the activities of their elders are of vital interest to them, and in their imitation they will prepare themselves to take part in living. So the social needs that arise will be those that will, must, contribute to the educative processes.

Children are gregarious. No child wants to play alone; or if he seems to do so there is something wrong which a constructive educational program should seek to correct. In such a program as we are outlining the force of natural selection will bring together those children who have inherited like traits. Each voluntary group, come into being for a student activity, will be homogeneous to a much greater degree than any segregated group so far examined. The gregarious instinct will bring the children together and the force of natural selection, engendered by the common interest in the project, will ensure a group of nearly like endowment.

When Ellis speaks of environment modi-

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fighting individuals he specifically includes the schools. That is to say that the schools have no monopoly on the educational forces at work on the individual. All the thousand and one influences in the child's life outside of school have a distinct bearing on his education. If the school will undertake to direct these it can make them enormously effective for good. Jobs, vocational experiments, play, clubs, societies, teams, gangs, theaters, libraries, and newspapers—all will contribute to the child's development anyway. The school should direct and use them.

Student activities may motivate the classroom work. The old idea, based on a slavish belief in the efficacy of formal discipline, that it is enough for the teacher to say that a thing must be mastered, no longer convinces. Unless an adult can see a reason for doing something, a way in which he may benefit from the accomplishment of a task, especially if it be a bit difficult, he will not begin the work. And neither will the child. We respect the adult who refuses to be drawn into an expenditure of energy that would be extravagant for him; but we say of the child who does the same thing that he is failing and must be punished. Often a child will learn from experience in some club that the work of a course has a direct application to his life and needs, and will go back into the class eager to learn where before he was shirking.

A worth-while student-activity program will be conducted by a group of teachers who have leisure and energy to develop close, intimate understanding of the pupils in their charge. In the classroom this is impossible, the numbers are too great and the time is too limited; but in the club it can be done. The teacher too is a volunteer; he too has come to the work through natural selection; it is his hobby as it is that of the children; and he will bring a sympathy to the relationship that will give him an appreciation and understanding of the indi-

"The beginnings of reform must be in a substitution by professional colleges of educational vision for unpragmatic facts and technical procedures."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

Read this article in the October issue of
the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEAR-
ING HOUSE.

viduals which will lead to success. There will still be individual differences, but there will be also opportunity for each to exercise his peculiar endowment in the pursuit of a common objective in which all are interested.

Speaking in terms of the ideal, a program of student activities can be organized to provide outlets for all the energies of all the children in a school however they, as individuals, may be differentiated. Each child will be able to find some stimulus to action out of which he can get a satisfaction that will establish a permanent bond, through which he will get an education. This is an application of Thorndike's "law of effect." Much of the failure now found in our schools is due to the lack of elasticity in the work demanded. The pupils do not get satisfaction out of their performance and so the results tend to be very poor and quite impermanent. In the students' voluntary activity that satisfaction is apparent to them and the results follow.

But leaving the ideal and talking strict pragmatism, such a program as this under discussion does offer a constructive means to meet the problem of individual differences. From its very nature it must be elastic, flexible, suited to the needs of those who take part in it. And it can be adjusted from day to day, if necessary, to meet changing conditions and the desires of the children involved.

APPRECIATION OF TEACHERS AND TEACHING

INTRODUCTION BY THOMAS H. BRIGGS

In literature, history, and biographical memoirs there are interesting accounts of great schoolmasters. Sometimes they represent one theory of education, sometimes another. Their greatness derives from a variety of causes—love of mankind, devotion to a philosophy, masterly skill, or a dominant personality that would have brought greatness in any line of work. From such men we lesser schoolmasters can learn much. Though changed conditions of life and a more liberal philosophy may make it unwise for us to imitate any one exactly, every one of the great masters of the past can furnish us suggestion and stimulus.

Believing this, the editors of the *CLEARING HOUSE* are initiating a series of selections that present the great masters of the past, masters of many lands, of many ages, and of varied characteristics. The first selection concerns Moses Woolson of the English High School in Boston in the 1870's.

Louis H. Sullivan was a great American architect (1856-1924), who, born in Boston, did his work in Chicago. Though thoroughly trained in the classical tradition of Europe, he brought a new mode into architecture. Revolting from imitation he developed the ideal that beautiful form should reflect function. His Transportation Building at the Columbian World's Fair in 1893 was the only one there of distinctively American style. He is generally credited with bringing beauty to the modern skyscraper.

Grateful acknowledgment is made to Mr. Sullivan and his publishers, the American Institute of Architects, Washington, D.C., for their courteous permission to reproduce the following excerpt from *The Autobiography of An Idea*.

Louis was among those—about forty in all—assigned to a room on the second floor, presided over by a "master" named Moses Woolson. This

room was dingy rather than gloomy. The individual desks were in rows facing north, the light came from windows in the west and south walls. The master's platform and desk were at the west wall; on the opposite wall was a long blackboard. The entrance door was at the north, and in the southwest corner were two large glass-paneled cabinets, one containing a collection of minerals, the other carefully prepared specimens of wood from all parts of the world.

The new class was assembled and seated by a monitor, while the master sat at his desk picking his right ear. Louis felt as one entering upon a new adventure, the outcome of which he could not forecast but surmised would be momentous.

Seated at last, Louis glanced at the master, whose appearance and make-up suggested, in a measure, a farmer of the hardy, spare, weather-beaten, penurious, successful type—apparently a man of forty or under. When silence had settled over the mob, the master rose and began an harangue to his raw recruits; indeed, he plunged into it without a word of welcome. He was a man above medium height, very scant beard, shocky hair; his movements were pantherlike; his features in action were set as with authority and pugnacity, like those of a first mate taking on a fresh crew.

He was tense, and did not swagger—a man of passion. He said, in substance: "Boys, you don't know me, but you soon will. The discipline here will be rigid. You have come here to learn and I'll see that you do. I will not only do my share but I will make you do yours. You are here under my care; no other man shall interfere with you. I rule here—I am master here—as you will soon discover. You are here as wards in my charge; I accept that charge as sacred; I accept the responsibility involved as a high, exacting duty I owe to myself and equally to you. I will give to you all that I have; you shall give to me all that you have. But mark you: The first rule of discipline shall be SILENCE. Not a desk top shall be raised, not a book touched, no shuffling of feet, no whispering, no sloppy movements, no rustling. I do not use the rod; I believe it the instrument of barbarous minds and weak wills, but I will shake the daylight out of any boy who transgresses, after one warning. The second rule shall be strict attention: You are here to *learn*, to *think*, to *concentrate* on the matter in hand, to

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hold your minds steady. The third rule shall cover alertness. You shall be awake all the time—body and brain; you shall cultivate promptness, speed, nimbleness, dexterity of mind. The fourth rule: You shall learn to listen; to listen in *silence* with the *whole* mind, not part of it; to listen with your *whole heart*, not part of it, for sound listening is a basis for sound thinking; sympathetic listening is a basis for sympathetic, worth-while thinking; accurate listening is a basis for accurate thinking. Finally, you are to learn to observe, to reflect, to discriminate. But this subject is of such high importance, so much above your present understanding, that I will not comment upon it now; it is not to be approached without due preparation. I shall not start you with a jerk, but tighten the lines bit by bit until I have you firmly in hand at the most spirited pace you can go." As he said this last saying, a dangerous smile went back and forth over his grim set face. As to the rest, he outlined the curriculum and his plan of procedure for the coming school year. He stressed matters of hygiene; and stated that a raised hand would always have attention. Lessons were then marked off in the various books—all were to be "home lessons"—and the class was dismissed for the day.

Louis was amazed, thunderstruck, dumfounded, overjoyed! He had caught and weighed every word as it fell from the lips of the master; to each thrilling word he had vibrated in open-eyed, amazed response. He knew now that through the years his thoughts, his emotions, his dreams, his feelings, his romances, his visions had been formless and chaotic; now in this man's utterances they were voiced in explosive condensation; in a flash they became defined, living, real. A pathway had been shown him, a wholly novel plan revealed that he grasped as a banner in his hand, as homeward bound he cried within: *At last a Man!*

Louis felt the hour of freedom was at hand. He saw, with inward glowing that true freedom could come only through discipline of power, and he translated the master's word of discipline into its true intent: *self-discipline of self-power*. His eager life was to condense now in a focusing of powers: What had the words meant—"silence," "attention," "promptness," "speed," "accurate," "observe," "reflect," "discriminate"—but powers of his own, obscurely mingled, uncoordinated, and, thus far, vain to create? Now, in the master's plan, which he saw as a ground plan, he beheld that for which, in the darkness of broad daylight, he had yearned so desperately in vain;

that for which, as it were, with empty, outstretched hands, he had grasped, vaguely groping; as one seeing through a film, that for which he had hungered with an aching heart as empty as his hands. He had not known, surely, what it was he wished to find, but when the master breathed the words that Louis felt to be inspired—"You are here as wards in my charge; I accept that charge as sacred; I accept the responsibility involved as a high exacting duty I owe to myself and equally to you. I will give to you all that I have, you shall give me all that you have"—a veil was parted, as it were by magic, and behold! there stood forth not alone a man but a *Teacher* of the young.¹

The ground work of his plan was set forth in his opening address, and is now to be revealed in its workings in detail.

The studies on which Louis set the highest value were algebra, geometry, English literature, botany, mineralogy, and French language. All these subjects were to him revelations. Algebra had startled him; for through its portal he entered an unsuspected world of symbols. To him the symbol x flashed at once as a key to the unknown but ascertainable. Standing alone, he viewed this x in surprise as a mystic spirit in a land of enchantment, opening vistas so deep he could not see the end, and his vivid imagination saw at once that this x expanded in its latent power, might prove the key to turn a lock in a door within a wall which shut out the truth he was seeking—the truth which might dissolve for him the mystery that lay behind appearances. For this x , he saw, was manipulated by means of things unknown.

Thus he saw far ahead; looking towards the time when he would be mature. Geometry delighted him because of its nicety, its exactitude of relationships, its weird surprises—all like fairy tales, fairy tales which could be proved, and then you said: Q.E.D. He began to see what was meant by a theorem, a postulate, a problem, and that *proof* was a reasoned process based on certain facts or assertions. It was well for him, at the time, that he did not perceive the Euclidian *rigidity*, in the sense that he had noted the fluency of algebra. As to botany, had he not always seen trees and shrubs and vines and flowers of the field, the orchard, and the garden?

¹ Louis H. Sullivan, *The Autobiography of An Idea*. (New York: Press of the American Institute of Architects, Inc., 1926), pp. 157-160.

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Now he was learning their true story, their most secret intimacies, and the organization of their world. He loved them all the more for this. Mineralogy was new and revealing, the common stones had begun, as it were, to talk to him in their own words. Concerning French he was ardent, for he had France in view. English literature opened to him the great world of words, of ordered speech, the marvelous vehicle whereby were conveyed every human thought and feeling from mind to mind, from heart to heart, from soul to soul, from imagination to imagination, from thought to thought; and to his ever widening view, it soon arose before him as a vast treasure house wherein was stored, in huge accumulation, a record of the thoughts, the deed, the hopes, the joys, the sorrows, and the triumphs of mankind.

Moses Woolson was not a deep thinker, nor was Moses Woolson erudite or scholarly, or polished in manners, or sedate. Rather was he a blend of wild man and of poet. But of a surety he had the art of teaching at his finger tips and his plan of procedure was scientific to a degree, so far beyond the pedagogic attainments of his day that he stood unique, and was cordially hated by his craft as lambs might fear and hate a wolf. Today men would speak of such a man as a "human dynamo," a man ninety-nine per cent "efficient." His one weakness was a temper he all too often let escape him, but his high-strung, nervous make-up may be averred in part extenuation, for this very make-up was the source of his accomplishment and power: He surely gave in abundance, with overflowing hands, all that he had of the best to give.

His plan of procedure was simple in idea, and therefore possible of high elaboration in the steady course of its unfolding into action and results. For convenience it may be divided into three daily phases seemingly consecutive, but really interblended; first came severe memory drill, particularly in geometry, algebra, French grammar, and in exact English; this work first done at home, and tested out next day in the schoolroom. Second (first, next day), a period of recitation in which memory discipline and every aspect of alertness were carried at high tension. At the end of this period came the customary half-hour recess for fresh air and easing up. After recess came nature study with open book, chief among them Gray's "School and Field Book of Botany"—Louis' playground; then came a closing lecture by the master.

Thus, it may be said, there was a period of high tension, followed by a period of reduced

tension, and this in turn by a closing period of semi- or complete relaxation, as the master reeled off in easy, entertaining talk one of his delightful lectures. It was in the nature studies, and in these closing lectures, particularly those in which he dwelt upon the great out-of-doors, and upon the glories of English literature, that the deep enthusiasms of the man's nature came forth undisguised and unrestrained, rising often to the heights of impassioned eloquence, and beauteous awakening imagery. These lectures, or, rather, informal talks, covered a wide range of subjects, most of them lying beyond the boundaries of the school curriculum.

Thus, in a sense, Moses Woolson's schoolroom partook of the nature of a university—quite impressively so when Professor Asa Gray of Harvard came occasionally to talk botany to the boys. He did this out of regard for Moses Woolson's love of the science. The unfailing peroration of these lectures, every one of them, was an exhortation in favor of "Women's Rights" as the movement was called at the time; for Moses Woolson was a sincere and ardent champion of womankind. On this topic he spoke in true nobility of spirit.

But the talks that gripped Louis the hardest were those on English literature. Here the master was completely at his ease. Here, indeed, he revelled, as it were, in the careful analysis and lucid exposition of every phase of his subject, copious in quotation, delightfully critical in taking apart a passage, a single line, explaining the value of each word in respect of action, rhythm, color, quality, texture, fitness, then putting these elements together in a renewed recital of the passage which now became a living moving utterance. Impartial in judgment, fertile in illustration and expedient, clear in statement, he opened to view a new world, a new land of enchantment.

One day, to Louis' amazement, he announced that the best existing history of English literature was written by a Frenchman, one Hippolyte Taine by name. This phenomenon he explained by stating that the fine French mind possessed a quality and power of detachment unknown to the English; that Monsieur Taine further possessed that spiritual aspect of sympathy, that vision, which enabled him to view, to enter freely and to comprehend a work of art regardless yet regardless of its origin in time or place; and he rounded an antithesis of French and English culture in such wise as to arouse Louis' keenest attention, for the word *culture* had hitherto possessed no significance for him; it was merely a word! Now his thoughts, his whole being floated

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o'er the sea to distant France, whereupon he arose from his seat and asked Moses Woolson what culture really meant, and was told it signified the genius of a people, of a race. And what was meant by the *genius* of a people? It signified their innate qualities and powers of heart and mind; that therefore their culture was their own expression of their inmost selves, as individuals, as a people, as a race. Louis was magnificently bewildered by this high concentration. He seemed to be in a flood of light which hid everything from view; he made some sheepish rejoinder, whereupon Moses Woolson saw his own mistake.

He came down from his high perch to which he had climbed unwittingly, for it was dead against his theory and practice to talk above the heads of his boys. He thereupon diluted the prior statement with a simply worded illustration, and Louis was glad to find his own feet still on the ground. Then Louis put the two aspects of the statement side by side again, and "culture" became for him a living word—a sheer veil through which, at first, he could but dimly see; but living word and sheer living veil had come from without to abide with him. It seemed indeed as though Moses Woolson had passed on to him a wand of enchantment which he must learn to use to unveil the face of things. Thus Louis dreamed.

By the end of the school year Moses Woolson through genius as a teacher had turned a crudely promising boy into, so to speak, a mental athlete. He had brought order out of disorder, definition out of what was vague, superb alertness out of mere boyish ardor; had nurtured and concentrated all that was best in the boy; had made him consciously courageous and independent; had focussed his powers of thought, feeling, and action; had

confirmed Louis's love of the great out-of-doors, as a source of inspiration; and had climaxed all by parting a great veil which opened to the view of this same boy the wonderland of poetry.

Thus with great skill he made of Louis a compacted personality, ready to act on his own initiative in an intelligent, purposeful way. Louis had the same capacity to absorb, and to value discipline, that Moses Woolson had to impart it, and Louis was not a brilliant or showy scholar. He stood well up in his class and that was enough. His purpose was not to give out, but to receive, and to acquire. He was adept in the art of listening and was therefore rather silent of mood. His object was to get every ounce of treasure out of Moses Woolson. And yet for Moses Woolson the master and the man, he felt neither love nor affection, and it is quite likely that the master felt much the same towards him. What he felt towards the man was a vast admiration, he felt the power and the vigor of his intense and prodigal personality. It is scarcely likely that the master really knew, to the full extent, what he was doing for this boy, but Louis knew it; and there came gradually over him a cumulative reciprocity which, at the end, when he had fully realized the nature of the gift, burst forth into a sense of obligation and of gratitude so heartfelt, so profound, that it has remained with him in constancy throughout the years. There may have been teachers and teachers, but for Louis Sullivan there was and could be only one. And now, in all too feeble utterance he pleads this token, remembrance to the memory of that *one* long since passed on.²

² Louis H. Sullivan, *The Autobiography of an Idea*, pp. 163-169.

EDUCATIONAL IDEALS OF JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

HERBERT S. LAUCK

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The stability of the educational objectives of junior-high-school pupils has been a topic for speculation since junior-high-school guidance was first organized. Mr. Lauck of White Plains, New York, reports an interesting investigation of this problem.*

F. E. L.

As far back as 1750 there was a movement started to have the whole education of the individual based upon his own natural interests. In spite of the fact that this conception has been championed by such leaders as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and

Froebel, there is much to be done in overcoming educational dogmas. Our modern champion, John Dewey, has exerted a greater influence in this direction than any of his predecessors, and with the newer development of creative activities there has

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been a gradual awakening to the importance of interest in education. Dewey states that a democratic criterion requires us to develop capacity to the point of competency to choose and make its own career.¹

The purpose of this survey is to determine to what extent junior-high-school pupils have a definite and stable idea regarding their future educational life. The relationship of intelligence to educational choice and stability is also considered. These educational choices have been termed ideals and are here defined as a deferred interest, vitally connected with experience and considered the ultimate of accomplishment.

This study was made in East View Junior High School, White Plains, New York. While the conclusions drawn are applicable only to this situation, they are highly suggestive of what may exist in similar situations.

A questionnaire was submitted to all pu-

9. What pupil plans to do after leaving school

10. Intelligence quotient (school record)

The Haggerty Group Intelligence Test is used by the school and is followed by the Simon-Binet individual test when there is doubt about the first score being correct.

Educational choices are divided into four groups: (1) junior high school, (2) senior high school, (3) after public school, and (4) undecided. Results are tabulated separately by grades.

Those pupils making choices two years are divided into three groups: (1) changed, (2) unchanged, (3) undecided. Results are tabulated separately by grades and sex.

The first problem was to determine whether these children have a definite educational ideal. Tabulating the choices of their school career according to the above grouping, we found a very close correlation of percentages existed for all groups the

TABLE I
PERCENTAGES OF EDUCATIONAL CHOICES

Year	1928	1929	1930	Total per cent
Junior high school	20	19	19	19
Senior high school	43	47	47	45
After public school	30	27	25	28
Undecided	7	7	9	8

pils of the above school in the spring of 1927 and repeated two successive years, with a total of 1,198 replies.

The following information was obtained:

1. Name of pupil
2. Grade of pupil
3. Course of study
4. Occupation of father
5. Occupation of mother
6. Interest in school
7. Interest out of school
8. When pupil plans to leave school

¹ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916), p. 139.

three years the questionnaire was given. Table I illustrates this point.

The above table indicates clearly that there is a relatively small percentage of children in the junior high school who do not have any idea how long they will remain in school. If we tabulate these choices according to grades we find that there is an equally small number of pupils in each grade who have no definite educational ideal.

The above percentages reveal another striking point that deserves special comment. As these children advance, their desire to remain in school for a longer period

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TABLE II

Grade of pupil	7	8	9	Total per cent
Junior high school	30	18	13	19
Senior high school	40	45	50	45
After public school	22	29	30	28
Undecided	8	8	7	8

increases. That youthful economic urge to satisfy human desires by material means becomes less urgent as pupils advance in school. There is a gradual awakening to the fact that perhaps education has certain cultural as well as economic advantages. This appeal alone will not have the desired holding power of the school. There must be an awakening of interest in work successfully accomplished that shows signs of promise.

The next problem was to determine whether the educational choices of these children are stable. Those children making choices two years were classified, as stated above, into three groups. The following tables reveal that boys are less liable to change than girls, but both boys and girls become more stable after the first half of the seventh grade. Sixty-five per cent of the entire group under investigation were unchanged over a period of one year.

RELATIONSHIP OF INTELLIGENCE TO EDUCATIONAL IDEALS

There have been several studies made to determine the relationship between intelligence and educational ideals. The evidence presented here corroborates studies already made and reveals a striking relationship.

Proctor found that the median I.Q. of the student who had gone on in school beyond the senior high school was 115, while those who entered occupations was 105.² These figures correlate very closely with the results of this study.

Franklin found that vocational interests and the intelligence of pupils are exceedingly significant and potent factors in determining how long the pupil will remain in school.³ Franklin's study considered only

² W. M. Proctor, "Psychological Tests and Guidance of High School Pupils," *Journal of Education Research*, Monograph no. 1, October 1923, p. 90.

³ E. E. Franklin, *The Permanence of the Vocational Interests of Junior High School Pupils*, 1924, p. 42.

TABLE III

PER CENT BY GRADES AND TOTAL PER CENT OF ALL BOYS

Grade of pupil	7B	7A	8B	8A	Total per cent
Changed	26	19	21	18	21
Unchanged	55	75	63	73	67
Undecided	21	6	16	9	12

TABLE IV

PER CENT BY GRADES AND TOTAL PER CENT OF ALL GIRLS

Grade of pupil	7B	7A	8B	8A	Total per cent
Changed	22	21	10	20	18
Unchanged	40	65	75	65	62
Undecided	38	14	15	15	20

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TABLE V

	Median I.Q.
Undecided	87
Changed	91
Unchanged	102
Leaving in junior high school	90
Leaving in senior high school	101
Going beyond senior high school	112

seventh-grade pupils while this study includes seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The results are strikingly similar as far as the relationship to intelligence is concerned.

— The average intelligence of the entire group was 97.

— The higher the intelligence of junior-high-school pupils the higher the educational ideal.

— Junior-high-school pupils who are undecided when they will leave school are decidedly inferior in intelligence to those pupils who have a definite educational ideal.

— Pupils who have made some effort to plan their education but are wavering in their decision are slightly superior in intelligence to the drifters.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Frequently the practice of generalizing from individual or isolated cases results in gross error. While individual differences must be taken into account in any program which attempts guidance of an educational or vocational nature, it is exceedingly important to be able to predict group trends with some degree of certainty.

There are four distinct groups in the junior high school making educational choices: (1) junior-high-school level; (2) senior-high-school level; (3) beyond senior high school; and (4) undecided. It is the responsibility of the school to meet the needs of each group. Should group 1 be as large as 30 per cent? If the purpose of the junior high school is to bridge the gap between the elementary and secondary schools and afford opportunity for the child to find him-

self, we are forced to the conclusion that this percentage is entirely too high. Should pupils be encouraged to remain in school as long as possible and discouraged from making up their minds so early in life, since they cannot be sure what they will do after leaving school? If we answer this question in the affirmative then we must conclude that group 4 should be larger than 15 per cent. These are some of the much debated and undecided questions which educational guidance must answer.

There are three distinct groups regarding stability of educational ideals in junior high school: (1) drifters; (2) decided; (3) wavering. Each group presents its own difficult problems and should be treated separately. Contrary to common belief, the decided group constitutes two thirds of the entire group and the remainder are about equally divided between the drifters and wavering groups.

Children desire to remain in school just so long as they feel they can profit by so doing. Our responsibility is to make the school more attractive and fitting to their needs. This cannot be accomplished by exalted advice. The keynote of the situation is interest. Every possible opportunity should be afforded the child to explore his worth-while interests and the efforts of the teacher should be devoted to the promotion of these interests through creative activities. Educational guidance is the responsibility of every teacher and must accompany an educative activity. The degree of success attained will depend upon the ability of the

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teacher to inspire children and lead them on to higher activities.

It is generally agreed that there should be sufficient flexibility in the school program to permit children to change, providing they have to come to the conclusion that their present course is unwise. Democracy is based upon the principle that the individual is capable of making decisions regarding his future welfare. A guidance program which recognizes this principle is sound, and should be introduced as early in the school program as the junior high school in order to reach the greatest number of pupils.

1. Junior-high-school pupils have a very definite idea regarding how long they plan to remain in school.

2. As junior-high-school pupils advance, their desire to remain in school for a longer period increases.

3. Boys are more stable than girls regarding their educational choices.

4. Girls are more undecided than boys,

but once they have made a choice are less liable to change.

5. Boys and girls in the first half of the seventh grade are less stable than in subsequent years.

6. Junior-high-school pupils are definitely stable regarding their educational ideals after the first half of the seventh grade.

7. The higher the intelligence of junior-high-school pupils the higher the educational ideal.

8. Pupils who are undecided when they will leave school are decidedly inferior in intelligence to those pupils who have a definite educational ideal.

9. Pupils who have made some effort to plan their education but are wavering in their decision are slightly superior in intelligence to the drifters.

10. The higher the intelligence the greater the stability of the educational ideal of junior-high-school pupils.

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LOFTER BJARNASON

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Bjarnason, State supervisor of grammar grades and junior high schools, Salt Lake City, Utah, has been a consistent friend of the CLEARING HOUSE. He is doing much to improve the teaching technique in the junior high schools of Utah.

F. E. L.

I do not know that I could make entirely clear to an outsider the pleasure I have in teaching. I had rather earn my living by teaching than in any other way. In my mind, teaching is not merely a life work, a profession, an occupation, a struggle; it is a passion. I love to teach.

I love to teach as a painter loves to paint, as a musician loves to play, as a singer loves to sing, as a strong man rejoices to run a race. Teaching is an art—an art so great and so difficult to master that a man or woman can spend a long life at it without realizing much more than his limitations and mistakes, and his distance from the ideal.

But the main aim of my happy days has been to become a good teacher, just as every architect wishes to be a good architect and every professional poet strives towards perfection.

WILLIAM LYON PHELPS

The kind of argument that a teacher makes for the teaching technique she uses, reveals the nature and worth of the one who makes it.

Unprogressive teachers are content to follow traditional procedures, to tread the beaten paths, to follow the easy road where there are few boulders of personal responsibility to surmount. Such teachers never question the common practice. They are content to follow the lead of the majority. If they are teaching as their teachers taught and as most teachers teach, they are content. They look upon their work as a job. They take an impersonal attitude towards

their pupils. Their work resolves itself into three main activities: lesson assigning, lesson reciting, and marking papers. If a pupil learns, all well and good, he gets a good mark; if he fails to learn, he is chided, gets a poor mark, and is sent home with a note telling the parents what is needed and implying that now the problem is up to them.

Those who take this attitude and who defend it with the argument that it is the common practice fail to grasp the deeper meaning of their work. They never climb to the height of professional service nor press the depths of sound educational philosophy. To them each day is a day of weary toil, monotonous, dull, and filled with dreary drudgery. What a pitiful spectacle in a world richer in opportunities for advancement than ever before, this complacent school-ma'am of roll books and registers!

To the teacher tied hand and foot to routine, the argument for or against effective teaching technique means very little. She has little to lose by following traditional procedure and not much to gain by venturing into a new and for her an untried field. How is she to know beforehand that she will be more successful? Does she have any tangible evidence that superior service will be adequately recognized? Herein lies the crux of the problem. What can any one say to a teacher who accepts her calling as a job, who works for hire?

Speaking today from the standpoint of one who looks upon all teaching as a spiritual process, a highly specialized professional service, a work of love detached from material reward, I ask your serious attention. Teaching is like religion. It rests upon the foundation of faith and works. Yet it is not what you believe but what you do that counts. It is activity plus glowing enthusiasm. When this activity is well directed it develops the teacher's unfailing faith in the almost infinite improvability of every child and the child's faith in himself as an indi-

vidual capable of making progress. Seek, therefore, this faith in the possibilities of human progress through directed learning and this devotion to a calling for its own sake and all things that are really worth while will come to you.

Closely allied to this thought is another. Set it down as a guiding principle that no child shall ever be discouraged because of your attitude towards him or your method of dealing with him. See to it that the path he follows in his journey towards the goal is just steep enough and rugged enough to challenge his best effort but never so steep and never so rough as to bar his progress.

The teacher who becomes thoroughly imbued with this point of view and develops this sympathetic attitude towards children will begin to "walk in the newness" of professional life. To her each day will present itself as a golden opportunity; every problem will challenge her best efforts; every activity will give her the thrill of glorious adventure. There will be no monotony; no looking at the clock to count the minutes until dismissal; no passing the buck; no alibis; no scolding. She will go about her work as the surgeon in the operating room. The diagnosis having been carefully made, the remedial treatment is unfalteringly applied. There is no hesitancy, no vacillation, no hurry, no shifting of responsibility. The best known treatment having been applied, the medical man observes the results. If they are not what he expected, he modifies his treatment, and treats again and again until success has been achieved. Each new patient awakens in him all his latent powers, and he reviews all his professional knowledge that will bear upon the situation. Then he sets about his task with confidence and determination forgetful of self and with only one thought uppermost in his mind—the welfare of his patient.

With this professional point of view and

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this philosophic insight, the wide-awake teacher analyzes her responsibility and sets about the task of discovering and applying the technique that will most surely lead to success. Her first effort will be directed towards finding out what is needed; she will make a diagnosis of group and individual needs. But there can be no intelligent diagnosis without tests or measures of some kind. Consequently she pre-tests; that is, tests before teaching. The purpose of the pre-test is to find out what to teach and to whom instruction shall be given. She does not mark or grade the pupils' papers on the pre-test. There would be no point to that. No; she studies the results both as they affect group needs and individual needs. Having made this study carefully and thoroughly she is now in the position of the medical man who has discovered the source of the trouble.

When the teacher has learned in no uncertain manner what is needed, she is ready to go about her instruction intelligently. There are many steps in this process but as all Gaul was divided into three parts, so there are three aspects to instruction. These are (1) setting up the learning situation and stimulating learning activity; (2) giving definite instruction and guidance; and (3) evaluating learning products and applying remedial measures.

Having set up the learning situation, the teacher's second efforts will be directed towards instruction, versatile and varied to suit the needs and nature of the subject-matter and her pupils both as a group and as individuals.

As soon as instruction is completed and the pupils have responded by learning, the teacher tests in order to ascertain to what extent her teaching has "registered"; that is, how well her pupils have learned. If, as occasionally happens, the majority have failed to learn, there is only one common-sense thing to do; namely, repeat the in-

struction for the group. If, on the other hand, and as is usually the case, only a few individuals have failed to learn, she re-teaches these particular pupils.

"But," asks the doubting Thomas, "how and when can a teacher, burdened down with many classes and many pupils, do this?" If it were easy to answer that question specifically, we should have a panacea for most of the ills to which mass teaching is prey. However, while a panacea may not be available, experiments, and experience have shown that much more can be done than most of us have been willing to admit. Before any intelligent technique can be effectively used, it is necessary to understand a few principles of paramount importance. The amount of subject-matter to be assimilated in order to achieve any learning objective is relative. It must necessarily vary as the attitudes, ideals, and capabilities of the learners vary. The danger of getting too much is not so great as the danger of getting too little and there is usually more or less unlimited room for development in skill and increase in knowledge. Another of these principles is that the fundamental learning objective is the change that takes place in the individual as he studies subject-matter and not the number of pages he has read, or problems he has solved, or sentences he has diagrammed. We might almost say that the real learning product is what remains with the individual when he has forgotten most or all of the subject-matter. The product of learning is, then, a mode of thinking and doing.

This point of view leads invariably to the system of making assignments limited and definite in terms of the principle or process to be mastered but indeterminate as to the amount of subject-matter to be assimilated. While the members of the class are working on such an assignment, the teacher will be able to devote much time to reteaching individuals. As soon as the slow-working pupils

"The more I see of people in business or industry, the more I am convinced that teachers as a class are superior in loyalty, industry, and skill in the routines of their work."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

Read this article in the October issue of
the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEAR-
ING HOUSE.

have acquired mastery or have achieved the desired learning products, the changed attitude, the awakened ideal, the increased skill, the enlarged understanding, the teacher is ready to begin a new cycle as it applies to another block of subject-matter. In this way she applies the formula: teach, test, re-teach those who need reteaching, test again, and so on, teaching and testing, to the point of mastery to all normal pupils. The work moves along from day to day in a dignified, purposeful way. There is no slipshod, haphazard, guess-again type of procedure permitted. Both teacher and pupils know what is desired and all strive diligently to attain it. If a particular pupil is inclined to be indifferent or lazy, he is treated with unwavering determination and firmness but never scolded or browbeaten. The teacher looks upon indifference and laziness as symptoms much as the medical man looks upon general lassitude, heaviness, and dizziness as symptoms. The skilled teacher, like the skilled doctor, seeks the cause and then a remedy. Often she finds the most effective remedy in a procedure that is the polar opposite of that which is commonly used or which first suggests itself.

We are now ready to consider certain definite steps in effective teaching technique. These are theoretical. However, successful teachers have used some of them from the time when formal instruction was first initiated down to the present day. They are

now being successfully followed by many teachers in some of our more progressive junior high schools. They apply, with some modifications, to most or all content subjects which have for their learning objectives the understanding of principles or processes. They are as follows:

First. After the pre-test, which may often be omitted because the teacher already knows the present knowledge her pupils have of the subject, she makes an oral presentation accompanied by demonstrations and outlining on the blackboard. Occasionally she inserts into her presentation talk, a few questions of the thought-stimulating type.

In most instances the presentation should be followed immediately by a test. The nature of the subject-matter will determine the nature and content of this test. It should be so constructed as to involve maximum recalling of what the teacher said with as little writing as possible. The main purpose for such a test is that of training pupils to listen with close attention to the teacher's talk. The test papers will reveal to the teacher her success in making clear the topic or unit under consideration. If the teacher uses words which her pupils cannot understand or if the sentences she uses are involved or ambiguous, she will get a poor set of test papers. Thus such a test becomes for the teacher the best possible index of the effectiveness of her presentation.

Second. Vocabulary study. Every subject has its own vocabulary. The main words of this vocabulary should be presented and explained by the teacher. To impress upon the minds of the pupils the form and function of the word, it should be written on the board. By doing that, pupil attention is held and learning becomes more effective than when pupils are directed to look up such words in a dictionary. Obviously, all words that might be difficult for individual pupils cannot be presented in this formal way and,

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hence, each pupil must be stimulated and directed to use the dictionary constantly as he studies.

The purpose of the vocabulary-presentation step is twofold: first, to train pupils in the art of studying words, that is, learning how to attack new words for the clarification of the visual, auditory, and vocal-motor images involved; and second, to assist the pupils to read the text and other books on the subject intelligently.

That pupils often fail in their study of the text because they do not understand the words used is a matter of common observation. The general complaint of teachers that their pupils are unable to interpret a certain text, is familiar to every supervisor. Through planning and presentation of this second step in teaching any given unit of subject-matter will overcome this to a great extent. After a clear presentation and study of the more difficult words, the pupils will find interest and enthusiasm in the reading and studying of the text.

Most of our mental processes are carried on with words. Training in the use of words is, then, a form of training to think. Versatility of thought and versatility of vocabulary go hand in hand. Seldom do children acquire this mastery of words independently of formal instruction. It is not enough to send them individually to the dictionary, although that, too, should form a part of their training.

Third. Reading and study of the subject-matter as presented by the author of the text. Obviously this reading should be properly motivated and directed. It should be accompanied by training in the technique of silent reading, note taking, and outlining.

After a particular paragraph, section, or chapter has been read, the effectiveness of the reading should be tested by having the pupils work a series of written exercises on subject-matter. These exercises may, and probably should, in most instances, involve

a minimum of writing but a maximum of recalling and some reflective thinking. Obviously, these exercises should be checked; but for a teacher to sit and blue pencil each one and label it as a factory product, has very little, if any, value per se. Common errors should be noted for group instruction and individual errors for individual instruction.

Fourth. Supplementary reading and study of the same principle or process as presented by another author. Some of this reading and, in some instances all of it, might be done during evening hours at home. Again, it too should be checked in some definite manner. This second reading is fundamentally necessary in order to make for reflective and analytical thinking.

Fifth. Discussion. Before students can enter into an intelligent discussion of any given subject, two conditions are necessary: first, a body of common experience; and second, different experiences. It is, therefore, illogical to have a discussion before these experiences have been supplied, or made possible. The discussion should lead to and culminate in an outline or brief of the unit of subject-matter studied. The teacher directs this discussion. She not only allows considerable freedom but actually encourages it.

Sixth. Oral and written summary composition by the pupils of the entire unit studied. Obviously every member of the class cannot be given an opportunity to talk at length on each unit. However, each can have an opportunity to give an oral presentation on some one unit during the year. All should write on each unit. This is the summation of the learning process; it is the expression aspect and expression is just as necessary to effective learning as impression.

There are in reality four general aspects to the technique illustrated in this teaching plan: first, the pupils are trained to

listen attentively and intelligently to the study of the unit as told by the teacher who intersperses her narration with thought-stimulating or interpretative questions to which the pupils reply orally; second, the pupils are directed to read the text and supplementary readers with minds already imbued with some knowledge of the content; third, they respond to what they have heard and read in a definite manner by writing short, specific answers to fact questions; and finally, fourth, they receive training in

organization and expressing their knowledge in the form of oral and written summary compositions. In this manner, then, the pupils are trained to (a) listen with maximum attention to the spoken words, (b) exercise judgment concerning situations the facts of which have been presented to them, (c) read a text and supplementary readers with interest and attention, (d) recall specific facts, and (e) compose orally and in writing into coherent form, a study with which they have become familiar.

FACULTY MEETINGS: A BORE OR A DELIGHT?

BESSIE J. WOLFNER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Miss Wolfner has an idea that faculty meetings need not be a waste of the teachers' time. She suggests here a plan for making the faculty meeting function as a vital part of the high-school administration. Miss Wolfner is head of the department of French in the high school at University City, Missouri.*

L. B.

Various reasons have been given for the existence of the institution known as the high-school faculty meeting. It serves as a medium through which the administrative announcements for the week are issued; it affords an opportunity for the airing of grievances on the part of the principal and faculty members; it serves at times as a social get-together for teachers of all departments; it is one means of supervising the work and attitudes of teachers and of stimulating them to strive for better teaching techniques; and it serves as an administrative instrument for planning programs and schedules for the high school. These meetings are sometimes very helpful to the teachers who attend them and, at other times, they merely waste the time of those who attend them (usually under compulsion) and create a feeling of antagonism and dislike for anything which savors of the professional meeting. The high-school faculty meeting, if freed from boring, unessential details, can be made to function as a vital part of the high-school administration. It

was in an attempt to ascertain the policies actually governing high-school teachers' meetings and, if possible, the attitudes of the teachers towards these policies, that this study was undertaken more than a year ago. The purpose of the study is further outlined in the letter sent to superintendents of schools in the cities in which the study was carried on.

"For a number of years, it has been my duty to attend, as a faculty member, general faculty meetings in several high schools. During this time, an analysis of these meetings with a consideration of desirable modifications of such meetings to make them of greater value to the teaching corps has been of importance to me and to my colleagues."

"If you will be good enough to coöperate with us to the extent of sending copies of our inquiry blank to the high-school principals of your school system with the request that they distribute them among their teachers, later collect and return them to me as promptly as convenient, I shall indeed be grateful to you. Envelopes for the replies

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are furnished, as it is felt that this should encourage a more candid response on the part of both principals and teachers."

The above letter practically describes the method used in distributing material. A few

others were distributed in different cities by various members of the class. In most cases, the suggested procedure was followed by those schools which have responded.

A copy of the questionnaire sent follows:

The practice of holding faculty meetings of high-school teachers is almost universal in this country. The nature and value of these meetings vary widely. Below is a list of items sometimes used in a faculty-meeting program. The nature of meetings as actually conducted and the kinds of meetings desired by high-school teachers and other high-school officers are the subjects of this inquiry. Your reply will be a great help in describing present practice and in recommending changes. Will you, therefore, observe the following directions in reporting actual procedures and in expressing opinions.

- I. (a) In blank column number 1 at the left of the list of topics, check (V) those items which were used at least once in your general faculty meetings during the school year 1928-1929.
 (b) In blank column number 2, mark (X) those items which you believe to be most popular with the teachers in your high school.
 (c) In blank column number 3, mark (O) those items which you believe should be included in programs of general faculty meetings.

1	2	3	1	2	3
—	—	Administrative announcements	—	—	Discussion of parent coöperation
—	—	Minor items of school routine	—	—	Departmental problems
—	—	Committee reports on studies and experiments in school	—	—	Explanation of duties to new teachers
—	—	Social get-together	—	—	Discussion of teacher responsibilities
—	—	Demonstration lessons	—	—	Assembly programs
—	—	Reviews of current educational literature	—	—	Extracurricular activity problems
—	—	Discussion of professional problems	—	—	School spirit
—	—	Discussion of school policies	—	—	Teaching techniques
—	—	Inspirational talks	—	—	Student rating
—	—	Lecture by the principal	—	—	Supervised study problems
—	—	Student program making	—	—	Selection of textbooks
—	—	Planning of time schedule for classes each semester	—	—	Principal's report of superintendent's and board's comments on the staff
—	—	Assignment of special duties (hall, assembly, sponsorship)	—	—	Program of examinations and tests
—	—	Discussion of health and study problems of students	—	—	Curriculum revision
			—	—	Individual discipline problems

- II. (a) How often are faculty meetings held in your high school?

(Underscore the proper word)

- Weekly Biweekly Monthly Occasionally
 (b) Are teachers expected to attend Mothers' Club or Parent-Teacher Association meetings in lieu of a faculty meeting?

- III. (a) What is the length of the average faculty meeting in your school?

(Underscore the proper time)

- 15 minutes 35 minutes 1 hour More than one hour
 (b) Is there a definite time set for convening?
 Is this observed rigidly?
 For adjournment?
 Is this observed rigidly?

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IV. When are faculty meetings held in your high school?

(Underscore the appropriate ones)

Definitely scheduled date	Irregular dates	Call of principal
After school hours	Before school hours	During school
	Saturday mornings	At night

V. (a) Are definite programs planned in advance?

(b) By whom are they planned?

(c) How long in advance are they planned?

(d) Are teachers informed in advance regarding the nature of the meetings?

(e) If so, how long in advance?

(f) By what means are they informed?

(g) Is preparation required of each faculty member?

VI. Please list here any suggestions you may have, which would, in your opinion, tend to enhance the value of the faculty meetings in your high school.

After completing your report, enclose in attached envelope, seal, and return to your principal, who will forward the entire set of replies to me by parcel post.

Three hundred ninety-three responses have been received from the following cities: Albany, Batavia, Bowling Green (Ohio), Broadalbin, Brooklyn, Canojoharie, Cortland, Elizabeth (N.J.), Erie (Pa.), Flemington (N.J.), Glens Falls, Mt. Vernon, Oswego, Park Ridge (N.J.), Rochester, Rockville Center, Roslyn (Long Island), Schenectady, Spring Valley, Staten Island, Stillwater, Stroudsburg (Pa.), University City (Mo.), and White Plains.

The tables presented here show the replies to the first question, arranged in the order of frequency in which the items were checked. Compared with the numbers checked for the table indicating items actually in use and the table indicating items which should, according to teachers' opinions, be included in faculty meetings, the numbers checked in table 2, indicating items which are most popular, are quite small. Evidently, present practice in faculty meeting procedure is not altogether to the liking of the faculties as a whole.

I

ACTUAL PRACTICE

Administrative announcements	327
Minor items	286
Discussion of school policies	239

Discussion of teacher responsibilities	237
Student rating	198
Discussion of professional problems	192
Explanation of duties to new teachers	180
Social get-together	167
Assignment of special duties	161
Extracurricular activities	160
Program of tests and examinations	159
Lecture by principal	128
School spirit	125
Discussion of parent cooperation	110
Individual discipline problems	106
Discussion of health	104
Inspirational talks	103
Curriculum revision	103
Departmental problems	92
Teaching techniques	83
Assembly programs	79
Committee reports	77
Student program making	77
Supervised study problems	74
Time schedule	57
Principal's report	56
Reviews of current educational literature ...	45
Selection of textbooks	30
Demonstration lessons	7

II

ITEMS ACCORDING TO POPULARITY

Discussion of professional problems	155
Social get-together	128
Discussion of school policies	126
Administrative announcements	99
Inspirational talks	91
Discussion of teacher responsibilities	73

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Student rating	71
Individual discipline problems	69
Discussion of health	63
School spirit	60
Discussion of parent coöperation	59
Extracurricular activities	58
Supervised study problems	48
Committee reports	45
Explanation of duties to new teachers	45
Teaching techniques	45
Departmental problems	44
Minor items	43
Program of examinations and tests	40
Assembly programs	40
Review of literature (current educational) ..	38
Curriculum revision	38
Demonstration lessons	27
Lecture by principal	26
Student program making	22
Time schedule	21
Principal's report	21
Selection of textbooks	20
Assignment of special duties	9

III

ITEMS ACCORDING TO DESIRABILITY

Discussion of professional problems	216
Discussion of school policies	197
Administrative announcements	183
Discussion of teacher responsibilities	179
Inspirational talks	169
Discussion of health problems	148
Committee reports	141
Reviews of current educational literature....	135
Social get-together	131
Discussion of parent coöperation	127
Student rating	126
Extracurricular activities	120
School spirit	118
Explanation of duties to new teachers	117
Teaching techniques	116
Curriculum revision	108
Supervised study problems	101
Assembly programs	92
Individual discipline problems	88
Program of tests and examinations	83
Minor items	82
Demonstration lessons	75
Principal's report	75
Departmental problems	74
Assignment of special duties	60
Selection of textbooks	53
Lecture by principal	53
Student program making	48
Time schedule	32

There were very few additions to the list of items in Question I. Five of these were items in actual use: checking study hall schedules, checking conflicts, parsing semester marks, dormitory life, discussion of ethics of the profession. Two were marked popular: parsing semester marks and dormitory life. Four are listed as desirable: reports on conventions, discussion of the ethics of the profession, study of how the school is actually meeting life problems of its students, and coördination of the work of the various departments.

The tabulation of replies to questions II, III, IV, and V was rendered difficult by the fact that many teachers and principals seemed uncertain concerning the policies governing their own meetings. Within the same school there were different opinions concerning the frequency with which meetings were held, the time of meeting and adjourning, or the methods of planning meetings.

Question II

- (a) How often are faculty meetings held in your school?

Weekly	51	Biweekly	49
Monthly	149	Occasionally	144

- (b) Are teachers expected to attend Mothers' Club or Parent-Teacher Association meetings in lieu of a faculty meeting?

Yes	35	No	321	?	2
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Question III

- (a) What is the length of the average faculty meeting in your school?

15 min. .	10	30 min. .	98	45 min. .	25
1 hr.	188	more than 1 hr.	65		

- (b) Is there a definite time set for convening?

Yes	306	No	72
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Is this observed rigidly?

Yes ..	246	No ..	67	Sometimes ..	6
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For adjournment?

Yes	67	No	275	?	2
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[Some replied to this and the next question that no time was set for adjournment, but that it was rigidly observed!]

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Is this observed rigidly?

Yes .. 58 No .. 110 Sometimes .. 6

Question IV. When are faculty meetings held in your high school?

Definite dates 146
After school 332
Irregular dates 65
* Before school 7
Saturday morning 0
Call of principal 176
During school hours 8
At night 17

Question V

(a) Are definite programs planned in advance?

Yes .. 215 No .. 101 Sometimes .. 26

(b) By whom are they planned?

Principal 241
Superintendent 5
Department heads 3
Committee of teachers 32
Assistant Principal 5
None 1

[Several replied in answer to (a) and (b) of this question that the programs were not planned at all, but that they were planned by the principal.]

(c) How long in advance are they planned?

Few hours 3
2 days 2
1 week 19
2 weeks 6
3 weeks 2
1 month 6
3 months 5
6 months 1
For the school year 2
Constant preparation 1
? 10

(d) Are teachers informed in advance regarding the nature of the meetings?

Yes .. 63 No .. 187 Sometimes .. 77

(e) If so, how long in advance?

Same day 13
Few days 27
1 week 26
2 weeks 13
3 weeks 3
1 month 16
? 5
Year schedule 3

(f) By what means are they informed?

Bulletin board 49
Radio 3
Registration-book notice 2
Previous meeting 7
Announcements (oral or written circular) 91
Principal 13

(g) Is preparation required of each faculty member?

Yes .. 5 No .. 279 Sometimes .. 18

From one city an interesting letter was received which informed us that the practice of holding general faculty meetings has been abandoned there. Instead, administrative announcements and minor items are handled through mimeographed notices, while other items are left to a teachers' organization. There are faculty projects and in connection with them weekly meetings are held in the evening at which committee reports are submitted. Attendance at these meetings is optional. This may be merely another form of faculty meeting held at night to which teachers are "cordially invited" or it may be, as it is undoubtedly intended to be, a discussion group so well motivated as to be of vital interest to all, and of real value in solving problems of importance to the entire staff.

In dealing with the last question of the investigation concerning the policies governing high-school faculty meetings, certain quotations are included in part from the comments of the 393 teachers and principals who have shown their interest in the problem by adding them and by expressing rather vividly at times their opinions with regard to existing systems. With few exceptions, the suggestions appear here as they did on the inquiry blanks.

A faculty meeting should deal with problems concerning the entire faculty.

The principal should not feel on the offensive if any criticism of the system is made. This occurs and causes the faculty to express their opinions outside of the meetings and this stirs things up.

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If teachers were informed in advance regarding the nature of the meeting, questions of importance would be more thoroughly considered.

There should be more purpose than just to have a meeting to satisfy a requirement of the Board.

Short accounts of how other schools solve practical problems.

Talks by business men, professional men, college professors, etc.

Less of the attitude that the principal is a power to behold and the teachers are there to do and hear what he has to say.

Teachers do not like to speak their minds before heads of departments.

Close early on meeting days. Light lunch at each meeting.

Programs planned by various departments.

Less talking in circles and ruts.

More facts and less discussion.

Faculty meetings should be as scarce as practicable and as short as they can be. It is not easy to provide inspiration and refreshment for tired teachers, but those are their only needs.

Mimeographed outline of points to be touched on at meeting. Teachers who are absent may thus be held equally responsible with those who were present at the meeting.

I consider the general faculty meeting as followed for 31 years a waste of time.

Travel reports by the teachers of the school.

More discussion of new pedagogical and psychological ideas.

For other than official announcements, the problem should be announced a few days or a week ahead. Some committee report as a basis for discussion instead of spontaneous opinion.

Religiously exclude matters not of interest to teachers as a whole.

Make teachers feel it is a conference of mutual concern, not an opportunity for routine details or scolding.

From every discussion which takes valuable time, draw *some* conclusions and carry them out. They may lead to the correct solution, if they do not furnish one.

Let the meeting occur to anticipate a situation, not always to remedy after the harm has been done.

Not so much suppression and repression.

Debates between teachers on school policies.

Each teacher excels in some particular line of work. He or she should be allowed or encouraged to help others in that line.

I have observed nothing which is popular with our teachers.

I think teachers' meetings should be inspirational . . . something to be looked forward to rather than dreaded.

Have the faculty plan meetings with the aid and suggestions of the principal and superintendent.

Reports of helpful courses taken at the universities, since not all teachers can take all courses.

A code of professional ethics to be adopted for betterment of all and adhered to rigidly.

Student representation at certain faculty meetings, at least for part of the meeting period.

A faculty banquet at school each semester.

A permanent organization providing for recreational as well as professional activities.

More prepared teacher participation.

Each teacher give an account of himself, his aims, and purposes, his plans, policies, methods, etc. It would be helpful to the teacher accounting for himself to take mental stock of himself, and to the others it might serve as a jolt, an inspiration, an education in what the rest of the school is doing.

A few well-planned interesting meetings are better than many dull ones without definite object.

Daily bulletins.

Committees appointed to serve throughout the semester on such problems as scholarship, assembly, etc.

So long as there is teacher-rating by principals without principal-rating by teachers, faculty meetings will not be joyful occasions.

The principal should be open-minded at these meetings and not take offense at everything that is said. The majority are afraid of criticism. If they were not guilty of many things, they would not be offended at some of the teachers' discussion.

In evaluating these comments, it seems that certain tendencies are noticeable.

1. Teachers do not seem to feel that they are deriving benefit from their general teachers' meetings commensurate with the expenditure of time required by their attendance at the meetings.

2. There seems to be a lack of definite planning for the work to be considered at general meetings. This coupled with the fact

"There are times when complacency endangers the individual and menaces society. This is one of such times... The comfort of complacency is today suffering rude shocks."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

Read this article in the October issue of
the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEAR-
ING HOUSE.

that teachers are not given enough accurate information concerning the time of meeting, its length, purpose, and policies governing it, has much to do with the feeling they have for the inadequacy and futility of the meetings.

3. There seems to be a desire on the part of the teachers for something beyond mere routine details, which are better cared for in bulletins.

4. The objective attitude on the part of principals is evidently lacking judging from the number of comments which refer to the tendency of the principals to be offended by teacher discussion at meetings.

5. Many teachers appear to be willing, even anxious, to accept the responsibility of participation in the formulation of policies, if the principal and the superintendent are willing to share this responsibility with them.

6. Teachers seem to feel the lack of a definite purpose in general teachers' meetings.

7. Some teachers have become so accustomed to the routine type of meetings that they do not seem to desire anything more, or to realize that any other type of meeting can exist. They seem content to "bear those ills they have," rather than "fly to others that they know not of."

8. On the other hand, some teachers have become so bored and discouraged by the type of meetings they have attended for so

many years and they need inspiration so badly that they are willing to accept almost any feature in meetings, which is unfamiliar to them, just because it offers a variation from the uninteresting monotony of their experience.

9. A number of teachers used the questionnaire as an opportunity to express their opinions of administrators and policies. These comments, varied and interesting as they were, were too irrelevant to the main purpose of the study to be incorporated in this summary. Some of them, however, were apparently cries from the soul and sincere beyond a shadow of doubt.

With these general tendencies in mind, then, it is recommended that the principal be at all times a leader, but that he not forget that it is a teachers' meeting. Meetings should be professional, cheerful, interesting, cordial functions. They should be as brief as possible, providing ample time for discussion of all problems that are fundamentally important to the entire group. Attendance, if this plan is feasible, might be voluntary. If all features not of genuine interest to the entire group are excluded as nearly as possible from general meetings, attendance should not prove a real burden. If problems of interest to small groups are handled in committee and departmental meetings, and presented to the faculty as a whole only when general discussion or approval of the group are desired, much time will be saved for all and better results obtained. On such occasions, each member of the faculty, informed in advance of the problem to be discussed, can come to the meeting as a specialist in his own field, prepared to contribute something of value in the solution of the problem. Such a meeting should furnish a fine medium for supervision as well as a splendid opportunity for the development of professional attitudes on behalf of all members of the teaching corps.

TEACHING COMPOSITION TO THE LOW I.Q.'S

FRANCES E. PARKER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *How can we get teachers to handle low I.Q.'s? This will not be a difficult problem when teachers understand the possibilities of turning the classroom into a workroom, a shop, a club, as did Miss Parker of the Morey Junior High School of Denver, Colorado.*

F. E. L.

While it is generally recognized that teaching composition in the junior high school is not as attractive as the teaching of literature, the teaching of composition to the slow learning may be far less attractive.

It was a 7B class of thirty-two with I.Q.'s ranging from 67 to 96. After reviewing some of the cardinal objectives of education and some characteristics of the slow learning child, my enthusiasm, which had been at low ebb, began to revive. I had arrived at the conclusion that "the most deep-seated tendency in human life is movement, impulse, activity" before I read *The Child-Centered School* by Rugg and Shumaker. How to provide for activity in the English class was my problem.

In our Denver course of study I found the incentive if not the authority for doing the thing I wanted to do. It states that the cardinal objectives do not permit of differentiation. But for slow-learning children ways and means of achieving them will differ according to the nature of the child; the level of achievement will be in accordance with his capacity; the relative importance of the objectives will vary according to his needs. The course of study further says, "Actual life situations tend to develop reasoning ability, judgment, and other desirable traits, attitudes, and habits, but for the slow learning, accomplishment must be through the formation of specific skills and habits growing out of as wide a range of life situations as is possible and practical."

We are told to encourage experimentation in various kinds of constructive work, since, through their interests, special activities may be discovered. It is the responsibility of the teacher to discover the strong

interests of the group and of the individual and to provide activities of such a nature that will hold their attention. But how to get life situations for the low I.Q.'s when they apparently had no interests except for general science and printing was another matter.

It has been said that their power of concentration is low, their interests are less intense, less varied than those of other children. They are lacking in capacity for imagery. They need the objective stimuli. We are also told that they are lacking in vocabulary, but this I sometimes doubt, for they seem to be well supplied when the occasion arises. They have very little control and judgment, are excitable, impulsive, and even explosive.

The child's interest is aroused by tangible things within his experience. His progress is more rapid when the task depends upon manual activities as well as mental activities. There was one statement in the course that challenged my attention: "The lower the mental capacity of the child, the more time he should spend at manual activities." This led me to make a definite decision for the group. The classroom should, for the time being, be turned into a workroom, a shop, a club.

It took some time and much resourcefulness to find out what they could do. After talking about outside interests and hobbies, they made a list of the things they could do and liked to do. Harvey told about some fighting bantams which he owned and cared for. He owned some pigeons and knew some interesting stories about homers. He was asked to write about these and bring some pictures. We could then put them in a

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booklet. Dave had made a tiny pocket radio with the speaker in one earphone but he could not tell about it as well as he might if he could bring it and show how he did it. You can imagine the "audience situation." The description he gave was later organized into an interesting composition with drawings and diagrams.

Dick's father, who was wise and understanding, bought an old car for him. Dick and two of his friends worked on the reconstruction and told about the difficulties they overcame. They brought parts and showed how they did not work, and what they did to make them work. Two other boys explained how they had constructed a telephone across three back yards by using buzzers, batteries, wire, and earphones. The blackboard was used for the diagram. Jack asked if he might show Joe why his model airplane would not fly.

Written compositions were not required every time, but they were encouraged to make an outline showing each step before the explanation was given. It is surprising how they "come alive" when you enter their field. They will even reciprocate by coming

into your field and getting a spelling lesson for you. They are doing more of the things that must be done, even reading along other lines. They are intensely interested in almost every kind of science magazine and I asked them to bring a copy of the kind they liked. Every child who brought one or two had some articles in which he was particularly interested. The following is a list of the magazines: *Practical Aviation*, *Model Aircraft News*, *Radio News*, *Aero Mechanics*, *Popular Science Monthly*, *Science and Invention*, *Aero Digest*, *Air Travel*, *Airway Age*, *Aeronautics*, *Boy's Life*, *Popular Mechanics*, and others.

By giving them a wide range of interests and using these interests as "purposeful activities," much is accomplished, a better social attitude is created, and discipline becomes a thing of the past.

Adolph Ferriere in his book, *The Activity School*, said: "The school which offers nothing but knowledge must disappear. In its place must come the school which teaches the child how to use the lever which has ever raised the world above itself—purposeful activity."

A PLAN FOR COÖPERATIVE SUPERVISION

ARTHUR M. SEYBOLD

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Seybold has recently resigned his position as principal of the Thomas Jefferson Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio, to accept the principalship of the Oak Lane Country Day School of Philadelphia. As a teacher, Mr. Seybold is an artist; as a principal, he conceives his position as an opportunity to aid teachers to grow in service.

F. E. L.

At the beginning of each school year every principal, every supervisor, and every department head attacks the illusive problem of the supervision of the classroom teachers who look to them for leadership. This problem is solved in many ways. In fact, the means which are employed are so diversified that executives do not have to look far for fruitful ideas.

Rating plans old and new are reprinted

and checked with infinite pains. Personal equipment, teaching ability, routine and physical conditions, discipline, professional growth, and social efficiency—these terms are studied, weighed, and judged dispassionately with true professional candor.

Organization of external supervision, mechanized set-up of internal supervision, programs of visits to classrooms, teachers' meetings, supervisory bulletins, and demon-

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stration lessons—these topics are revised and brought once more to a thousand yawning faculties.

The fact that these topics are worthy of the cogitation of many groups of teachers is not to be dismissed with jest or diatribe. They should be studied and discussed as long as children are taught and as long as the heritage of the race is passed from one generation to another. The vexatious predicament, however, in which many executives find themselves is not attributed to the content of their plans so much as it is to the method in which they feel constrained to submit their wares. Teachers have always studied these problems. Teachers should continue to study these problems in spite of the fact that they are not accepted with sincere enthusiasm. Why should principals or supervisors be disturbed because the older teachers seem to be bored with the ever-recurring problems of discipline or classroom management? This ennui is to be expected. One must just accept some things. This has been going on for years. Why should they disturb the even tenor of traditional customs? There is no reason in the world why they should. Thus they reason and pass out their plans once more for the good of the cause.

There are many executives, however, who are sincerely attempting to overcome the faculty ennui, the evident feeling of weariness and the visible lack of interest which so often meets the introduction of their most carefully prepared plans. These men and women have discovered that a paper program of supervision is not effective. They have found that the difficulty of obtaining faculty interest is not to be charged to the problem studied so much as it is to the method in which the problem is introduced and then pushed to a satisfactory consummation. These executives know that schoolmen have been too much concerned with the mechanism of their schemes and

too little considerate of the need of humanizing their plans. These men have earnestly attempted to touch their supervisory schemes into life and to give color to processes long grown drab with much use.

The coöperative supervisory project has grown out of this need. This device has found expression in many forms. The revisions of courses of study in almost every city and country of our nation, in most instances, have been instituted as supervisory devices. These plans have been successful because supervisors, principals, teachers, research departments, subject-matter experts, and often students have been enabled to work together upon a common problem. The barriers of the supervisor versus the supervised, the superior versus the inferior have been overcome and all types of workers have cast their efforts into an undertaking desired by all and shaped by all into a common entity. When the project is completed each participant may survey the finished product and observe his own thought in many integral parts of the completed structure. This brings to the interested worker a satisfaction that must not be disregarded by the promoter of programs.

In addition to these satisfactions the coöperative supervisory project brings many concomitant learnings. Objectives are surveyed, subject-matter is read, the philosophy of the subject is carefully considered, and the psychology of its presentation is not forgotten; these are but a few of the avenues over which the minds of committees must pass before any satisfactory course of study may be evolved. The whole program should result in raising the mass to a higher plane of endeavor.

There are so many approaches which have provided avenues of access to the supervisory problem that one wonders why we have waited so long to realize their worth. One of the most used devices of the present time is the study of the use of

visual aids. A supervisor may be ostensibly interested in discovering how an opaque projection lantern may vitalize the teaching of the social studies in his school system. He will enter classroom after classroom with an enthusiasm for his device which will inspire the acceptance of its use in many recitation rooms, recitations which had been so lifeless before his genius touched the dull clay found there. Lantern slides, strip films, motion pictures, models, charts, and mounted specimens flow into the program as easily as timber upon a spring freshet, once the flood of interest has been aroused. The supervisor, all the while, has a concrete subject upon which his discussion may center. Teacher and principal are discovering new ways of making lantern slides for the school, but in the selection of the pictures needed, in the presentation of the photographed illustrations, in class situations, and in the study of the best psychological use of these accessories, the participants are brought together upon an active coöperative basis. Teaching ability, routine, and physical conditions of the classroom, discipline, and all of the diversified subjects mentioned at the beginning of this discussion are not forgotten entirely. They now have meaning because discipline, class management, and ideal physical condition in the classroom must prevail so that the visual aids will have an opportunity for effective use.

Visual aids might well be given the center of coöperative use and discussion for a semester. Could this not be followed with the use of the field trip? Every faculty has a number of teachers who have been taking student excursions into the industries of the community. Let the story of these trips be presented at teachers' meetings and let the results of the expeditions be dramatized in demonstration lessons. Again this common problem will bring to all of its participants benefits comparable to those

mentioned in the project described above.

Follow this with the study of the unit presentation of subject-matter. The ramifications of this topic might employ much of the creative energies of an able faculty for a whole year. Books will be read and their contents will find dynamic use in classroom experimentation. Teachers will pass with supervisors from room to room surveying different angles of the new experiments in which all are interested. Intervisitation? Surely, intervisitation with a real purpose. There is little thought here of inspectional supervision, conflict of personalities, and all of the chimeras of our old pedagogical fears. We are now caught with the need of making our new coöperative project an efficient instrument in our teaching program.

The radio is another avenue the reach of which we are just beginning to understand. Mass lessons in arithmetic, lessons taught by experts to large groups of children and observed by assisting teachers who will meet at the close of the school day and discuss the worth of the processes employed, have brought to us a most effective instrument of supervision. There is no universality of opinion as to the worth of this device and experimentation with its use may be beneficial to any faculty which employs the idea with a modicum of common sense. Radio committee reports of classroom work, radio class plays, and program lessons broadcasted to groups of students interested in the same work bring to the ingenious supervisor a unique field of inquiry. Lesson plans? Try to prepare a radio lesson without them. Teachers working in this field have found that infinite pains must be given to the preparation of every detail of a good radio lesson. Let a whole faculty observe a radio lesson and profitable discussion will ensue; there is no doubt about this. Let the supervisor sponsor the project, help teachers develop the lesson, and then

SHOULD TRAFFIC COPS TEACH LATIN?

let him join with his teacher committee in the defense of the demonstration. He will not come out of that meeting feeling that he is a super-supervisor.

Study the project and the problem, experiment with the use of music in appreciation lessons, attempt the reproduction of whole lessons by mimeographed reports or by actual sound recording, using these lessons as case studies, print and distribute exemplary recitations, study interest leads in large and in small classes measuring the results of the teaching in these classes, discover, if possible, the best interest leads for children of different intelligence abilities—

these are but a few of the many problems which might enlist the united efforts of a faculty or a group of teachers in a subject-matter field for a period of years.

Let a teaching group be subjected to such a barrage and not only will most of the dross be discarded but each teacher will have retained what was applicable to his individual needs. This has been done in many schools with but little of the stigma of ennui occasioned by the old approach, and with a high degree of faculty interest that has been a source of joy to the supervisors who have become most ardent devotees of the plan.

SHOULD TRAFFIC COPS TEACH LATIN?

JOHN CARR DUFF

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Duff, principal of the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Uniontown, Pennsylvania, maintains that we have gone too far in pupil participation. What is your opinion?

F. E. L.

The schoolboy patrol movement, I have every reason to believe, was inaugurated in good faith and has been promoted in the same way. It is gaining in numbers as school districts all over the country, co-operating with local motor clubs install patrols at their various schools. More corners are managed by more boys wearing the shiny badge and white belt distributed by the mayor clubs.

Two years ago we installed our first "safety patrol." The patrol organized this fall was our third. We have given the plan a fair trial. Our administration of the patrol was sympathetic even when it had ceased to be enthusiastic. We believe that, for the reasons I shall give, we were not justified in continuing the operation of the patrol. Its activity is indefinitely suspended at the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School.

Because the reasons for our withdrawal from the schoolboy patrol movement are

reasons common to most school situations, I am encouraged to set them down here for consideration by school executives who may be planning to establish patrols.

PERSONAL DANGER TO THE BOYS

In order to control vehicular traffic at the intersections near the schools, it is usual for the schoolboy patrolman to stand in the intersection or step out into the path of traffic when he wishes to give the signal to stop. Since boys are boys, and drivers are human, there are many times when only kind providence saves the young traffic officers from serious injury. They may be warned and cautioned and cautioned and warned, but the badge and belt are intoxicating, and there is the great temptation to show their full authority by waiting until a car is quite close, then stepping out to flag it to a stop. The car may stop, while the driver curses the boy for a fool and wonders what kind of school officials permit such a sys-

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tem; or the car may disregard the signal and drive on, leaving Mr. Patrolman to jump out of the way the nimblest he can; or the driver may tramp on the brakes for a stop to find the wheels gliding dizzily towards the boy with the badge. Not only the patrolman but other students waiting at the intersection are imperiled.

The school officials who authorize a boy to control vehicular traffic at an intersection are morally responsible for the boy if he suffers injury in performing the duties assigned him, but they are not legally responsible in most States. The parents of the boy could not recover hospital bills, doctor bills, nor damages if the boy were crippled for life while acting as a member of the school-boy patrol. A communication sent out from the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction last year gave in detail the law governing the responsibility of the school district in such a case.

If the facts were made clear to the parents, and they were asked to give their permission for their boys to serve on the patrol, not many would give it. The boys themselves are eager enough to go out on a patrol assignment, and any talk of risk is likely to increase their eagerness, their bravado, and consequently, the danger they run.

MONOTONY VERSUS NOVELTY

The novelty of the tin badge and the glory of special vested authority make it easy for the principal to recruit a large number of boys when the patrol is formed. But cold weather, sopping rain and slush, and the irksomeness of assigned routine quickly take the edge off of young enthusiasm, so that before the shiny badge is dulled, the patrolman is slighting his responsibilities or failing to take his post when assigned. The morale of the patrol goes to pieces then, and even the boys who have not worn the symbols of authority are willing to forego them. The patrol which had recruits in re-

serve in September can scarcely muster a single officer when January has come around.

INCONSISTENCY

A fundamental objection to the school-boy patrol as it is operated in most places is the lack of uniformity. Except for the badge and white belt, there is no tie between this patrol and all the others. The motorist driving across town will be flagged by a patrolman who uses a mechanical semaphore operated from the sidewalk; at another school crossing will be signalled by a patrolman who stands heroically in the crux of the intersection; and at the next will be jumped at by a young officer whose eagerness outdoes his prudence.

The high schools, because their boys are old enough and large enough, supposedly, to be trusted with the responsibilities of a safety patrolman, have the intersections near their buildings regulated by the student officers. But the grade schools, where hundreds of tiny tots go to school, are without protection or have protection inadequate to guard all the dangerous intersections between the school and the homes.

With the same degree of inconsistency we put patrolmen on the intersections near the school building, and require the students on being dismissed to cross at these intersections and to cross only on a signal from the patrolmen. The students do as they are asked, but a block or so farther on they throw safety to the winds and dart across the streets wherever and whenever the impulse guides them. If you drive a car, you know that the motorist is on the alert when driving past a school building while children are coming or leaving, and at the intersections near the school he exerts the highest degree of caution; so a patrol officer is not needed so much near the school as at the intersections all over town which are not near a school.

SHOULD TRAFFIC COPS TEACH LATIN?

SAFETY EDUCATION

It is the practice in the Benjamin Franklin, and in practically every other school in the State, to give detailed instructions in safety in the classes in hygiene and in community civics. The students draw cartoons advocating safety, paint posters, write essays and poems, compose songs, and act plays all designed to inculcate the safety idea. We teach the necessity for safety and the means of being safe in the home, the school, and the shop, on the farm, and the playfield; and because of the appalling number of accidents on the streets, we give the most time to teaching safety there. When the student should have learned a few ideas about safety certainly he should have learned when and how to cross the street in safety—we set up a patrol with badges and semaphores to tell him when to wait and when to cross. He is embarrassed by this reflection on his ability to take care of himself, and defends himself against his humiliation by some feat of foolhardiness as soon as he is out of calling distance of the patrolman. And Mr. Adolescent and his sister may be trusted to see the inconsistency of going through the motions of protecting everybody from motor cars at the school intersections while other intersections much more dangerous to cross are unguarded. Safety becomes a catchword, and the safety idea is classed as so much moralizing, material for a nice school curriculum, but nothing to be taken seriously.

We accepted the patrol because it appeared to be an excellent device for motivating our safety instruction. For the boys actually engaged in the work it was an additional opportunity for activity involving many learning situations. Omitting all other considerations, except the value of the patrol work as a set of learning activities, it would be valuable for about a month. But it would not be a good project to carry on indefinitely, and it cannot, in practice, be

"It is because of my loyalty to education, because of my faith in its possibilities, that I venture to point out some of its defects and to indicate what seems to be the direction in which it should move. To the complacent my criticisms may seem to be caviling; but too obvious facts refute that suspicion."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

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ING HOUSE.

divorced from considerations which outweigh its instructional value.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL

There is still much disagreement about the extent of the functions exercised by the school, but there is a general agreement that the obligations of the school stop somewhere short of those delegated to the police department. There is no overlapping. We do not send our retarded students to the station house to be drilled in the number combinations; and we are not content to be saddled with any part of the responsibility for controlling traffic. Perhaps the police officials are not to blame for our embarrassment. They are no more eager than we are for this confusion. But they have endorsed the schoolboy patrol movement, they have given their aid in instructing the patrolmen in their duties, and they have permitted us to pretend that these boys exercise police power. For our part, we now give them back whatever police power they delegated to us, and in return we promise not to ask them to teach any of our Latin classes. We will teach the Latin classes, and we shall expect them to provide whatever protection is necessary where small boys and girls must cross the streets in heavy traffic on their way to and from school.

In the meantime, we shall continue to

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teach safety—safety on the streets, in the homes, in the school, and everywhere that there are hazards to life and limb. We shall do what we can to make this instruction specific and practical, and to see that it is practised. There will be punishment for recklessness and commendation for prudence and discretion. Much of our teaching will fall on deaf ears, for youth must learn in its own way. Some boys will be injured, some will be crippled, some may be killed,

but the number in each case will be less because some students will hear and heed the warnings.

For the protection of those who do not hear or will not heed, it may be necessary to provide supervision at danger centers. An enlightened community will see that adequate protection is furnished. But it is not within the authority of school officials to assign to students a function which is reserved to the police officials.

THE BOY SCOUTS IN THE DETROIT SCHOOLS

E. A. WRIGHT

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Wright has been a field scout executive in the Detroit public schools for the last five years. This article draws upon the experiences of over 10,000 scouts and leaders in the metropolitan area of Detroit.

L. B.

School scout development in the public schools of Detroit began officially October 26, 1920. The leadership for these troops is recruited from the neighborhood of the school in the persons of the fathers and older brothers of scouts.

The procedure followed in the organization of these school troops is outlined in the paragraphs which follow.

During the twenty-one years that scouting has been organized in the United States, over three million boys have felt the scout influence through their enrollment as registered Boy Scouts. The scout membership has grown steadily until in 1928 there were over 800,000 boys and men actively enrolled.

The scout movement in Detroit has kept pace with the national development, the present active membership of scouts and leaders being in excess of 10,000. This has been true not only in growth in membership but in the quality of the scout work developed here.

The School Scout Coöperation Plan in Detroit has been, since its inception ten years ago, a powerful single factor, outside

of the leadership, in enabling this council to achieve its outstanding position.

There has been notable development of scouting through the free use of school buildings and equipment and the continued cordial encouragement of scouts and scouting by the individual school principals, teachers, and other school authorities. The Detroit Board of Education has not merely passed resolutions favoring scouting, but has actually made use of scouting in achieving its own educational and character-building objectives.

At the outset, when Mr. Cody, in coöperation with Detroit scout officials, first brought this scheme into being, there were 15 troops with perhaps 350 scouts that were meeting in school buildings, there being no sponsoring connection between the school and the troop. At present there are over 100 troops meeting in schools once a week, 90 of these being actively sponsored by the school authorities themselves.

The main lines of the actual scheme of coöperation remain practically the same as when instituted in 1920. A committee of

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five appointed by the Detroit Council, Boy Scouts of America, and a committee of five appointed by the Superintendent of Schools act jointly as a committee of advisers on the workings of the scheme.

The actual connection with the school system is made through the health-education department. Two field scout executives are employed on the staff of this department under the director of health education. They have their desks in the scout headquarters office and on scouting affairs serve under the direction of the scout executive.

Through this scheme of coöperation, the following activities are promoted: (1) Organization of new troops in schools; (2) Supervision and direction of existing school troops; (3) Developing plans of using school administrative machinery to serve scouts; (4) Supervising the use of school equipment by scouts; (5) Outlining service projects in the various schools; (6) Correlating the school program with the city-wide scout program.

It is an established fact that the permanency and success of a Boy Scout troop depends, to a very great extent, on the procedure followed in organization. A troop organized on a firm basis cannot help but be a permanent asset to scouting. This entails proper procedure on the part of the field executive in acquainting the head of the institution with the advantages of the scout program, organizing a troop committee, and keeping in close contact with the troop after organization. The following procedure has been used in Detroit successfully:

1. A letter to the principal of the school from the field executive. This is a means of calling to the attention of the principal the advantages of the Boy Scout program; the fact that scouting is a board of education activity; and finally, that the field executive is willing to coöperate in the organization of

"The public has faith,—an inordinate faith, perhaps—in the competence of the professional teacher and administrator. . . . The profession is complacent primarily because it is undisturbed by intelligent and persistent criticism . . . and because it is easy to follow the tradition and difficult to conceive the larger needs and to invent means of satisfying them."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

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ING HOUSE.

a troop and so service the troop after its organization that its permanency will be assured.

2. A survey made by the principal of the school to determine the following: (a) Number of boys in school 12 years of age and older; (b) Number of boys in school between 11 and 12 years of age; (c) Number of boys already scouts. There should be at least 25 boys of scout age interested in becoming scouts.

3. A "pep" rally conducted by the field executive. This consists of songs, demonstrations, slides, and a talk on scouting. The field executive impresses on boys necessity of influencing their dads to support the troop by working on the troop committee. This is necessary if the troop is to be organized.

4. The principal writes letter to dads of all the boys, inviting them to attend meeting on specified date.

5. The field executive meets with dads. Troop committee is organized. Scoutmaster is selected.

6. Troop begins meeting. The field executive keeps in close contact with troop in order to assist troop committee and scoutmaster in building a strong, healthy, and substantial organization.

BOTH SIDES OF POSTAGE STAMPS

ROBERT E. WOODWARD

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Hobbies have a habit of bobbing up in progressive junior and senior high schools. Mr. Woodward, of Summit, New Jersey, believes that more pupils will be interested in "both sides of postage stamps" if they look as well as lick.*

F. E. L.

Any hobby not positively harmful is generally welcome by teachers because it indicates a spontaneous interest which may lead to an interest in life in general and in the school curriculum in particular. Since the occurrence of philately has spread more than normally during the past year or two, a few observations upon its educational uses and applications are here offered as a footnote to the correlation of the so-called extra-curricular activities with the prevailing curricular studies.

The collecting of postage stamps is probably the most extensive and best organized hobby of a strictly "useless" nature. To the unbitten, the intense absorption of even the average stamp collector seems little short of insanity, yet this strange mania is one of the most informative and disciplinary pastimes. That it is popular among children, even as young as those of the third grade, is a distinct advantage to education. This is only fair play, however, for it is believed that a teacher's directions that pupils paste foreign stamps in their geographies may have been the cause of the first systematic classification according to countries.¹

A thorough presentation of the things that tend to be learned from the collection of postage stamps would require too much space and is unnecessary here. Briefly, however, the most important are these:

Geography. The existence, location, capital, commercial importance, even the ideals and culture of the countries of the world. The identification and classification of a single puzzling stamp often proves a minia-

ture trip around the world, including not only all the principal countries, but such places as Azerbaijan, Bosnia, Guiana, Tunis, and the Lebanon Republic as well.

Civics. The governments, rulers, flags, and political interrelations of the regions of the globe. Recent and current means of written communication.

History and biography. Memorial issues deliberately forward this, but even without them the political history of a country, especially such as Russia, Hungary, Cuba, and China, may be read in its ordinary and overprinted issues. (See reference to Mr. Allen's book.)

Foreign language. French, German, and Spanish actually become languages instead of school subjects by the magic of a mere handful of words like *centime*, *Reich*, and *correos*. Practically nowhere else in our schools is created the necessity of understanding a single word or character in Italian (except in music), Dutch, Russian, Portuguese, Hungarian, Swedish, Greek (except the alphabet), Irish, or Polish. Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Turkish, Persian, all important written languages, pass under the eye, even where they need not be understood. Many an advanced adult collector knows no foreign language, but he has a broad conception of the family of tongues which should vitalize any child's study of an individual foreign language.

Mental discipline. Any one who denies the mental discipline required in the collection, discrimination, organization, and evaluation involved in even elementary philately is quite likely to be an utter stranger to postage stamps except as necessary adher-

¹ Encyclopedia Britannica, Eleventh Edition, XXI, p. 374.

BOTH SIDES OF POSTAGE STAMPS

ents to letters. While it is granted that such activity produces no goods and performs no services, it compares favorably in this respect with the activity required in the usual "disciplinary" subject of a curriculum. And it is important to remember that the discipline of collection is *self-imposed*.

Miscellaneous information. This is not an avowed aim of the school, but unfortunately it is sometimes the only result. The contribution stamp collecting makes to worldwide miscellaneous information is tremendous, as can best be understood through Mr. Rothschild's book, listed in the references.

The school in which an epidemic of philately breaks out need not despair, but on the contrary should count itself fortunate. In a junior high school it may best be centered in a club. To start a club, about all that is necessary is a place and time in which those interested may meet. To organize a stamp club without a nucleus of at least one juvenile collector is outside the writer's experience and fairly inconceivable.

An interested teacher, of course, stimulates interest, especially if the teacher is somewhat experienced in the elementary mysteries of philately; but even a teacher is not indispensable. A fairly recent catalogue is far more useful, though occasionally trading, which is the normal and vital activity of a stamp club, may develop disputes that the catalogue cannot quiet.

A teacher-member's chief duty, aside from encouraging general interest, is probably the arousing of a less than superficial curiosity in the significant historical or geographical facts presented on the face or in the issuance of the stamps collected.

This has been successfully done by planning an assembly program in which members of the club tell the school the stories behind certain interesting stamps. This involves displaying the stamp, which is no simple matter as but few lantern slides of

stamps are available and those available are not, I believe, in color. The most practical method is to mount the stamp on a card and project it by opaque-reflection on a translucent screen. This sometimes leaves much to be desired in size and brilliance, but it shows color and does well for groups not too large.

Club pride and prestige may be aroused by displaying in rooms or halls enlargements in color executed by artistically talented members. Enlargements may reach the size of two by three feet and, of course, do not require photographic accuracy. This innocent activity, however, is not legal when United States stamps are used as models.

The title promises a presentation of both sides of the subject so that it may as well be admitted that philately, like all hobbies, frequently becomes exclusive. Boys will for long periods think apparently of nothing but stamps, to the neglect of algebra, English, science, even outdoor play and sleep. An insistence upon a time for everything and everything in its time cares for all but extreme cases.

Another evil to guard against is the excessive spending of money for stamps. There is no objection to this for those who can afford it, but enthusiasm frequently carries children to extravagance quite unheard of among adults.

Most valuable to a teacher who wishes to guide this expenditure of energy (aside from actual experience as a collector) are books, of which there are several excellent recent ones. Of all books a catalogue is the most essential. Up-to-date ones cost two dollars, but those a few years old can frequently be obtained gratis from friendly collectors and serve nearly as well, as identification rather than values is their chief use.*

* The standard catalogue is that of the Scott Stamp and Coin Company, 1 West 47th Street, New York.

REFERENCES

F. B. Warren, *The Pageant of Civilization; World Romance and Adventure as Told by Postage Stamps*. New York: The Century Company, 1926-1927. Probably the most pretentious of books written about stamps in a way to interest both collector and noncollector. It contains more than a thousand illustrations. Definite cross reference of text and illustration is lacking, often vexatiously.

Edward M. Allen, *America's Story as Told in Postage Stamps*. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, 1931. A splendid book to sharpen the interest in American history. As the law forbids reproduction of United States stamps, space is arranged in the book for the owner to insert stamps that illustrate the text, combining collecting and history in a fine way.

P. H. Thorp, *Stamp Collecting, Why and How;*

Riding a Hobby. New York: Scott Stamp and Coin Company, 1929. A good book, amply illustrated, written with a special eye for youngsters.

Sigmund I. Rothschild, *Stories Postage Stamps Tell*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1931. It has the virtue of treating its topics briefly and contains interesting groups of illustrations depicting what may be found in stamps from advertising, agriculture, astronomy, down the list to sports, war, and zoology.

W. D. Burroughs, *The Wonderland of Stamps*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1910. A book written for children, less recent but still popular.

K. B. Stiles, *Stamps; an Outline of Philately*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1929. One of the many standard works, more or less technical, on stamp collecting.

TEACHING THE SOCIAL HERITAGE

JULIAN CARTER ALDRICH

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Aldrich advises against the shifting of viewpoints so common in the study of history, and advocates the study of the history of the world through the eyes of America. The purpose of the author is to present this viewpoint to American school teachers and administrators for consideration. Mr. Aldrich is vice principal of the Webster High School, Webster Groves, Missouri.

L. B.

If history is to be justified in the minds of liberal educators, it must do one or more of three things: (a) make the student familiar with the social heritage, (b) make the student familiar with the pressing contemporary problems, (c) make the student familiar with the important concepts used in everyday life. Seldom is more than one year of history specified as required in the senior high school. That one course should give a true and rather complete view of the social heritage. Included would be the story of how man developed his abilities, his institutions, and his culture. The main movements necessary to an understanding of present-day life must be described.

Two problems at once present themselves. The first is concerned with the selection of elements and the second is concerned with the point of reference. Most courses at-

tempting to tell the story of mankind present a compendium of facts which represents a digest of long works on ancient, medieval, and modern history. It is quite clear that there must be a selection of materials that will be real and vivid to the students. The criterion of selection must be significance. Only those materials which help to explain the character of present-day life should be included.

The problem of the point of reference of the pupil is a most important one. Many schools have organized courses in "world history" with the view that an understanding of the social heritage can be obtained best through a digest of the history of the world. The great drawback to this organization is that it sheds little light on the United States of today. As citizens of this country, the pupils have an interest in how *we* grew.

TEACHING THE SOCIAL HERITAGE

To bring the American view into the picture, some schools have combined European history with American. Europe is studied in four units, then the scene shifts to America for four units. This is unsatisfactory because of the necessity of shifting viewpoints and because it does not result in a unified view. A few schools have tried to study the history of the world through the eyes of America. This seems the logical line of attack, yet almost no publicity has been given to it.

The purpose of the author is to present this viewpoint to American school teachers and administrators for consideration. The summary given should not be used as a course of study; it should be a stimulus to thinking and experimentation.

A required course called American Characteristics and Backgrounds was introduced in the tenth grade of the Webster Groves (Missouri) High School with the intention of giving a broad view of the social heritage. The subject matter was chosen on one basis: What should a person know about history to understand the United States of today?

The first unit which was studied by the pupils dealt with the contributions of earlier civilizations to our own. After a trial of a year, all material was eliminated which did not point out roots of our own institutions, culture, and ideals. Included were accounts of the beginnings of tools, science, literature, art, and other phases of life for which modern applications could be found.

The second unit dealt with the beginnings of Anglo-American institutions. The story of the appearance in England of justice, organized government, industry, and foreign trade helps to explain our present institutions and how our nation began.

The third unit attempted to show how a general movement towards nationalism caused three revolutions. The flouted nationalism of the English people caused the Revolution of 1688, which in turn laid the foundations of the American revolt in 1775.

The influence of both of these helped to overthrow autocratic rule in France in 1789. Here the student does not get the idea that our rise to statehood was an isolated accident, but that a breath of freedom was blowing over the world, and our revolution was a phase of a world movement.

In a similar fashion the fourth unit explained the "rise of the common man." Contrary to the usual impression, democracy began in France and did not have an important place in the United States until the fall of the Federalists. It appeared in England, later than here, under the Liberals.

The fifth unit explained the industrialization of the world. It pointed out the beginnings of the industrial revolution in England and her rise to commercial power. Then was traced the industrial rise of the United States because of her immense resources and unique social and political philosophy. The rise of Germany as an industrial power, and the effect of that upon world politics raised the question of imperialism from 1890 until today.

The sixth unit attempted to interpret the present-day domestic problems which the pupils found existing. Constant use was made of newspapers, cartoons, excursions, and personal and family experiences. Knowledge gained in junior-high-school social science was organized to shed light on these problems. This was largely "creative history." The seventh unit did the same thing for foreign problems. Magazines, newspapers, cartoons, and radio programs were used to help understand how we are involved in the affairs of Europe, Asia, and Latin America.

The Morrisonian unit method of teaching was used in this course. The greatest difficulty was found in obtaining sufficient assimilative materials. Vivid details and clear explanations are needed, and these are frequently found in books which for various reasons the school library does not care to

"As a nation we are most complacent concerning education. . . . The public is complacent because it is committed to a fetish: it has been taught to believe in 'education,' and it does. It has been too busy scrambling along on the road to prosperity to think what education is or should be."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

Read this article in the October issue of
the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEAR-
ING HOUSE.

purchase in quantity. Such material must be duplicated and placed in the pupil's hands. Great quantities of reference material is required. But the pleasure makes the expenditure of time and money worth while.

To some extent the course may be judged by the attitudes of the teachers and pupils towards it. The main objection to the course by the pupils was that it was so organized that too much writing was required. The exercises were changed to provide for more oral work, debate, and observation of social phenomena. This objection was negligible, according to the pupils, when compared with the decided advantages. The pupils were pleased with the clear interpretation of where we came from and where we are going. The vital materials of instruction were praised by them. The teachers were pleased because of the clearer organization and because the unit organization permitted individual progress. Both pupils and teachers feel that the course is a great improvement over the past and should be continued.

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SCHOOL-NEWS COLUMN

EDITED BY S. O. ROREM

At the request of several associate editors and of many readers of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE, we are opening a news column containing brief notes of public-school activities throughout the United States. Our readers are invited to report the one most interesting item concerning their school, for this column. The column will attempt to use items in full or in part, at some time during the year, according to the choice and judgment of the column-editor. Feel free to offer items for our consideration.

The Woodrow Wilson High School of Long Beach, California, supplies manuals to the teachers and pupils in the classes in United States History and Government.

Oakdale Union High School of Oakdale, California, has set up a guidance program without the aid of the guidance expert as counselor for the pupils.

Lebanon Senior High School, Lebanon, Pennsylvania, employs a system of physical training which gives attention to the entire student body as well as to those who join the athletic squads.

Scranton, Pennsylvania, public schools have set up a special program of visual education, based upon the "school journey."

Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City, N.Y., has worked out an experimental one-year course in plane and solid geometry.

Lincoln, Nebraska, High School has set up a strong program of extracurricular activities.

The Detroit, Michigan, intermediate schools have carried out a general practice of homogeneous grouping of pupils.

The public schools of McGill, Nevada, have established a fine-arts program to vitalize the standard curriculum.

Winfield, Kansas, High School provides recognition and credit for graduation for citizenship-training activities of the school.

Yeatman Intermediate School, St. Louis, Missouri, places emphasis upon verse-making

as a part of the English training in the school.

The Park School of Baltimore, Maryland, has recently completed nineteen years of successful operation as a progressive educational institution.

Summit, New Jersey, Junior High School has developed an effective method for setting up the homeroom organization.

In George Washington High School, New York City, a modified course in geometry is being taught to the weaker pupils who are segregated into separate classes at the beginning of the year.

Promotion at University of Chicago High School is based upon mastery of the units of learning of subjects taken for credit, not upon average performance in daily lessons and examinations.

The Scarsdale, New York, plan of classroom procedure is built upon the general theory of the Dalton plan; many specific procedures are altered or improved to fit the local needs.

Social studies in the Rochester, New York, junior-senior high schools are being taught by a unit-of-learning plan supplying problems which stimulate a call for understanding rather than mere information.

John Burroughs School, St. Louis, Missouri, emphasized a correlation of high-school mathematics with other high-school subjects, wherever possible, "in an attempt to make the whole of high-school education more meaningful to the pupil."

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BOOK REVIEWS

Problems in Teaching Secondary-School Mathematics, by ERNST R. BRESLICH. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931, vii + 348 pages.

This is a second volume in a series of three planned by Mr. Breslich on secondary-school mathematics. The first, *The Technique of Teaching Secondary-School Mathematics*, dealt with effective procedures and approved methods in teaching mathematics and with the evaluation of the results of teaching. The present volume discusses "specific problems which arise in the teaching of instructional materials and in the development of the mathematical concepts, principles, processes, and skills." The next volume will deal with the bases on which mathematics materials are to be selected and organized for teaching purposes.

The problems met by mathematics teachers are discovered by a study of the mathematical literature. These problems are organized by subject, and procedures studied which might solve the teaching problems. Where experimentation seems to point to a definite procedure, that procedure is recommended. Where this is not true, advantages and disadvantages of the different procedures are given. The different procedures are very clearly explained so that they will be easily applied by the teacher in the classroom.

This book should have an important place in the library of every mathematics teacher as it offers a guide which each one needs. Mr. Breslich's skill as a teacher and his ability in analysis make this an authoritative work.

We may feel that much of the mathematics work required in the high school is useless drivel, but if we must give it, it should be taught in a way that will result in real learning products, not in mere memorizing and verbalizing. Algebra must be made real, geometry must have significance, and this Mr. Breslich explains so that even the most conservative mathematics teacher can be inspired to interest her pupils.

J. C. ALDRICH

Second Digest of Investigations in the Teaching of Science by FRANCIS D. CURTIS. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son and Company, 1931, 341 pages.

Under a rather tedious title and make-up, this book carries a goodly number of stimulating sug-

BOOK REVIEWS

gestions for the teacher of science. The reviewer gains the following from it: (1) A general view of the methods and achievements to date in different fields of science teaching; (2) Numerous specific findings of fact which may prove of value in future studies, particularly in the field of health education; (3) Valuable comparisons between different methods of administration and instruction; (4) Suggestions as to the evaluation of materials of instruction to be used at different levels; (5) Stimulating findings of studies in the scientific interests of various groups of people and various sorts of publications; (6) Suggestions as to types of tests and examinations which may profitably be used; (7) Illuminating findings of studies of vocabularies of books and pupils.

But it is futile to try to summarize an encyclopedia. The book as a whole is one whose pages teachers of science may profitably turn from time to time. It will doubtless quicken their analysis of their own work and stimulate some improvement. It can scarcely be regarded as more than a brief and fragmentary report and many of the studies behind it are frankly stated as lacking in finality.

L. M. DOUGAN

Elementary School Life Activities, by F. C. BORGESON. (2 vols.) Vol. I, "*All-School Activities*"; Vol. II, "*Group-Interest Activities*." New York: A. S. Barnes, 1931.

Dr. Borgeson has made a valuable contribution, on two counts: he has shown us to how great an extent forward looking elementary-school people are making use of extracurricular activities; and in doing so has assembled examples of practice from reports from two hundred cities in all parts of the country, from studies of university students, and from literature appearing since 1925. The books will be extremely useful for elementary teachers and principals who wish either to initiate or to enrich a program of extracurricular activities.

One could wish that Dr. Borgeson had undertaken to show more specifically the variation in teaching techniques from lower grades to higher; to show, in other words, that from small beginnings with careful and intimate teacher control in kindergarten or first grade, children grow gradually in power of managing their extracurricular activities to that point in the upper grades where the amount of teacher control is much less, and the amount of pupil control is much more. This holds for the general ("all-school") activities as well as for the group-interest activities.

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During the last few months the topic of conversation in secondary-school circles has been "Are these books what we need?" An unqualified "yes" has been the answer.

MODERN HISTORY, by Carl Becker, is reviewed in *School and Society*—"... Your chapter- and paragraph-headings are the brightest things I ever saw in any history. . . . Your hook-up of American events with European doings freshens my home history and puts it in a broader light . . . your diagrams depicting the gist of the chapters are original and impressive. . . . You may tell yourself that you have produced a masterpiece that will charm, edify, and benefit the world."

Educators say of EVERYDAY ECONOMICS, by Janzen and Stephenson—"... the style is clear . . . the questions and suggestions are excellent . . . the type is large enough . . . accurate . . . problems for classroom discussion are outstanding . . . up-to-date . . . the kind of book we want for agricultural economics . . . vocabulary suits the high school student . . . within the range of student's daily experience . . . sure to interest . . . that extra touch of workmanship . . . best high school text (*This is repeated over and over again*)."



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Grammar in Action, by J. C. TRESSLER.
New York: D. C. Heath, 1931, vi + 404 pages.

This book is a well-arranged formal grammar, useful for those who still find a place for grammar considered somewhat as a science and an end in itself. It does not make a language or functional approach. In junior-high-school or senior-high-school courses in English composition, it would have to be supplemented by a book setting forth means of using the language as a social instrument.

Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools, by Elbert K. Fretwell, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931.

Long have we waited for our leader to set down in his book the essence distilled from his years of experience as schoolmaster, teacher of teachers, counselor, and promoter of student-activity programs. At last it has arrived, and it is good.

What may be done with homerooms, class organizations, school government, publications, commencements, and athletics, in order to promote *active living* and so to fulfill this major purpose of the public high school is clearly and very adequately set forth in chapters two to sixteen. Chapter seventeen deals with the financing of extra-curricular activities. Each chapter is followed by thought-provoking questions.

From its inception, the American public high school has had one major practical purpose. Through it the community has sought "to enable the mercantile and mechanical classes to obtain an education adapted for those children whom their parents wished to qualify for *an active life*."¹

Professional classes and aristocrats could send their youths to Latin schools and academies. The people would establish and pay for a public high school for *its* children—one that would qualify them for *active living*.

To the reviewer it is regrettable that Dr. Fretwell should have used, and so apparently have given his sanction to the continued use of, the term "extracurricular" to designate the very activities which alone show promise of fulfilling the purposes of the school's founders and its supporters. The program that Fretwell so competently sets forth is the very heart of the pupil's curriculum of *active living*.

P.W.L.C.

¹ Josiah Quincy, speaking of the English High School of Boston. Quoted by Lucy L. W. Wilson, *Educational Outlook*, v, 2, January, 1931. Italics not in the original.

BOOKS RECEIVED

BOOKS RECEIVED

Ourselves and the World, by F. E. Lumley and Boyd H. Bode. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1931, viii + 591 pages.

Zaragüeta, by M. R. Carrión and V. Aza, edited by C. Castillo and A. Cavallo. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1931, vi + 153 pages.

A Manual of Experiments and Projects in Physics, by Krenerrick. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1931.

Learning and Test Activities in General Science, by Watkins and Bedell. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1931.

"The justifiable indictment that can be brought against teachers in our secondary schools, and also in our colleges, does not primarily concern the details of instruction; rather, it is that the purposes of the whole educative process are uncertain and indefinite, and consequently that a great amount of skilled effort is in a large sense meaningless and ineffectual."

—quoted from *Caviling at Complacency*
By Thomas H. Briggs

Read this article in the October issue of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE.

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